The Nation

Vol. CIII NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 7, 1916 No. 2671

Summary of the News

The strike threatened for Labor Day by the dictators of the railway brotherhoods was called off on Saturday night after Congress had granted the pound of flesh demanded, the leaders of the men even consenting to rescind the order to strike before the President's signature had been affixed to the bill. That ceremony was performed on Sunday morning on board the President's private car in the Union Station at Washington. The hurried legislation demanded by the railway brotherhoods and commended by President Wilson, authorizing, in name, the adoption of an eight-hour day, in fact, a large increase in wages, was passed by the House on Friday of last week and by the Senate on Saturday. The vote in the House was 239 to 56; that in the Senate 42 to 28. By the companies, as apparently by the general public, the present state of affairs is regarded merely as a truce hastily patched up to avert immediate calamity, and the constitutionality of the action of Congress, it is declared, will be tested in the Supreme Court. The immediate result of the threatened strike was a considerable increase in the prices of foodstuffs, an increase which, to some extent, according to the prophecy of the companies, is likely to be permanent.

Events in the Balkans have moved rapidly since Rumania's declaration of war on the Central Empires. Acceptance of the challenge by Bulgaria and Turkey was recorded in dispatches of September 1. The text of the Rumanian note handed to the Austro-Hungarian Minister at Bucharest, explaining Rumania's reasons for her declaration of war, was contained in dispatches of August 28, published in full in the New York morning papers two days later. Simultaneously with the proclamation of a state of war, the Transylvanian frontier was crossed, and Vienna, in last Saturday's official bulletin, admitted a rearrangement of Austrian forces involving the evacuation of Orsova. The German official statement of Sunday announced the crossing of the Dobrudja frontier of Rumania, between the Danube and the Black sea, by German and Bulgarian troops.

The effect of Rumania's action on Greece, obviously serious, has been obscured by the stringency of the censorship. All manner of rumors, as of the abdication of King Constantine, have circulated, but apparently the only one on which some measure of reliance can be placed is that concerning a revolution in the Salonica district and the setting up of an emergency administration for the purpose of repelling the Bulgarian invasion. The Bulgarian occupation of Drama, after a fight with the Greek garrison, recorded in dispatches of August 30, was presumably the final act which led to this decision. Information that the Allies had seized seven Teutonic ships at the Piræus was contained in dispatches of September 2.

More definite news was obtainable at the beginning of the week, dispatches on Monday giving the text of the new note presented on Saturday by the Ministers of France and Great Britain to the Greek Government. In brief phraseology it demanded surrender to the Allies of control of posts and telegraphs (this on account of the leakage of information to the enemy), and expulsion from Greece of enemy agents employed in corruption and espionage. It stated also that necessary measures had been taken against Greek subjects similarly employed. These demands, enforced by the presence of an Allied fleet off the Piræus, have been accepted in their entirety, and the chief German agent in Athens, Baron Schenck, has been arrested by the Allies. Indications are, indeed, that Greece will not long delay in declaring herself in favor of the Allies. Dispatches from Athens on Monday told of an agreement having been reached among parties, by which M. Venizelos and his followers would support the present Government of M. Zaimis, to which probably would be added two representatives of the Venizelist party. Later dispatches described the position of M. Zaimis as that of a virtual dictator and declared that Greece's participation in the war depended now on the decision of the Allies.

So far as operations on the Macedonian front are concerned, it would appear that the Bulgarian offensive against the Servian army has been checked, while the Italian forces in Albania have in their turn commenced an offensive designed to coöperate with the left wing of the Allies.

On the Somme front the Anglo-French offensive, held up during the past week by desperate German counter-attacks around Ginchy and Estrées, was renewed on Sunday. Official statements of that day reported an advance over a front of six and a half miles from Ginchy to Cléry. Guillemont was completely and Ginchy partially occupied by the British, while Leforest and Cléry were taken by the French. The advance thus brings the French almost to the outskirts of Combles on the south, which is also threatened from the north by the British advance to Ginchy. On Monday the attack was renewed by the French south of the Somme along a twelve-mile front, resulting in a considerable advance and the occupation of Soycourt and Chilly. The advance is considered the most important made since the beginning of July. More than 6,000 prisoners and a number of guns were taken in two days.

Dispatches at the beginning of the week indicated that a big battle, or series of battles, was developing on the eastern front in connection with the renewed Russian offensive in Galicia, directed against Lemberg. Gains have been reported by Gen. Brussiloff in the direction of Zlochoff, and by Gen. Letchitsky, who is closing in on Halicz. On the Italian front the only event of importance to record is the capture of Monte Cauriol, which took place early last week. The Turkish official statement of August 31 announced the rout of two and a half Russian divisions on the Caucasus front and the capture of 5,000 prisoners. The announcement from Petrograd, referring to the same operations, stated, however, that the Turkish attack had been repulsed.

The removal of von Falkenhayn as chief of the General Staff of the German Army and the appointment to succeed him of Field-Marshal von Hindenburg was announced on August 29.

An air raid in which thirteen Zeppelins participated, and of which London was apparently the objective, took place over the eastern counties of England early on Sunday morning. Only two persons were killed and apparently little damage was done, no ship being able to get nearer than fifteen miles from London. One Zeppelin was brought down, all of the crew being killed, and another was reported damaged.

The record of ships sunk by submarines has been light during the past week, only ten cases having been reported. The text of a German note, dated August 27, explaining the attack by a submarine on the American steamer Owego on August 3, was issued by the State Department on August 31. The gist of the explanation, which apparently is to be accepted, is that the commander of the Owego ignored, or failed to observe, several warning shots until one was fired across his bow. Another note regarding the Petrolite incident was also received last week from the Austro-Hungarian Government, but has not, as we write, been made public.

The Army and Navy Appropriation bills were signed by the President on August 30.

President Wilson's speech accepting the renomination to the Presidency was made at Shadow Lawn, the summer capital, on September 2.

The United States armored cruiser Memphis was driven ashore and wrecked in Santo Domingo harbor on August 29. As we note elsewhere, official accounts of the cause of the disaster, which involved the loss of many lives, are somewhat confused.

Mr. Hughes's most outspoken utterance on the matter which has caused perplexity to many of his friends was made at St. Louis on September 2, when, before an audience largely composed of German-Americans, he endorsed without qualification a strong speech on the subject of "hyphenation" that had been made by Col. Roosevelt at Lewiston, Me., two days previously.

Dispatches from Punta Arenas of September 3 reported the success of Sir Ernest Shackleton's fourth attempt to rescue the twenty-two men of his party who had been marooned on Elephant Island since April 24.

Dispatches from Tokio of Sunday's date contained details of the demands made by Japan on China in connection with the recent clash between Japanese and Chinese troops in eastern Mongolia. The most drastic of the demands and the one calculated to cause most uneasiness is that for the granting to Japan of police rights in inner Mongolia.

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The Week

Of the Republican members of the United States Senate only one—and this the unique La Follette—voted for the so-called eight-hour railway bill, passed under whip and spur on Saturday. The time may come when the party will be glad to point to this record. Of the Democratic Senators only two—Clarke of Arkansas and Hardwick of Georgia—registered their votes with the opposition. Senator Hardwick declared that in passing this legislation without the accompanying provisions originally recommended by the President, designed to prevent the possibility of the recurrence of such "an opportunity for any man or set of men, railroad managers or workers, to seize this Government by the throat," Congress was yielding to a hold-up, pure and simple, was making "a sorry trade," and presented "a sorry spectacle." There are, to be sure, some cheerful observers who regard the enactment of the legislation that ought to have gone along with the "eight-hour" bill as a certainty of the immediate future. That it ought to be so, that it would be so if our political and governmental leaders had the firmness of mind that the situation calls for, is certainly true. But between what ought to be and what is there is a deplorable gap; and for our part, we see no warrant whatever for the expectation that this legislation will be enacted during the lifetime of the present Congress at least. What its prospects will be after that depends upon political events that no one can forecast. Those who regard it, or profess to regard it, as a certainty are simply hugging to themselves such comfort as they can by any means force out of a humiliating situation.

Senator Underwood's amendment to the railway-labor bill, giving to the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to fix wages and hours of labor for railway workers, had, of course, no chance whatever of adoption; nor is there any reason to regret that this was so. The railway companies may desire such a law as a way out of their troubles; but to enact in haste, in order to meet a sudden crisis, a permanent measure which is so radical a departure from all our past economic and governmental policy would be even more preposterous than to grant at the pistol's point the particular advance in wages that the Brotherhoods have demanded. Far different, however, is it with the provision for orderly settlement of future disputes which was proposed as an amendment by Mr. Sterling in the House, and was summarily rejected. Mr. Mann, the Republican leader, was entirely justified in pointing with scorn to the fact that the President is "now accepting a small part of what he had recommended three days ago." Not only in his address to Congress, but also in his initial appeal to the railway managers, Mr. Wilson laid the utmost stress on the fact that his proposal for a settlement without arbitration or investigation was based on the double consideration that there was no legal provision for that process, and that the present settlement would be the last of the kind, because it would be accompanied, or immediately followed, by legislation that would "safeguard the future" by making a recurrence of the present situation impossible. All of this has now gone glimmering.

While the log cabin in which Abraham Lincoln was born is being dedicated by a Democratic President of Southern birth—in itself a fitting symbol of the reunited nation for which the martyr President strove—there is one way in which Americans may fitly honor the memory of Lincoln, at any distance from Hodgenville and every day in the year. This is by refraining from the temptation to drag the august name as an argument into our own little partisanships and prejudices. It is one of the real tests of Lincoln's greatness that his memory stands unscathed by all the foolish and narrow and ignoble things that Lincoln would have done if he were now alive and actively engaged in working with the fellows on our side of the fence, which, of course, there isn't the slightest doubt he would now be doing. From the ward politician who knows that Lincoln would have voted for him for Alderman and the national politician who knows just how Lincoln would have pacified Mexico, the name of Lincoln might well be delivered. After all, he did his share of duty during his lifetime, and passably well. That should be enough. When it comes to suffrage or the eight-hour day or prohibition or the Pure Food law, there is only one safe prediction to make of what Lincoln would have done with regard to these matters. He would have cracked his knuckles and told a good story.

When the New Logic is written, a chapter will doubtless deal with the Higher Inevitability:

> I endorse the declaration in the platform in favor of woman suffrage. I do not consider it necessary to review the arguments usually advanced on the one side or the other, as my own convictions proceed from a somewhat different point of view. Some time ago a consideration of our economic conditions and tendencies, of the position of women in gainful occupations, of the nature and course of the demand, led me to the conclusion that the granting of suffrage to women is inevitable.—*Charles E. Hughes.*

> Arbitration had been rendered impossible by the attitude of the men. . . . I therefore proposed that the eight-hour day be adopted by the railway managements. . . . The representatives of the brotherhoods accepted the plan, but the representatives of the railroads declined to accept it . . . in the face of what I cannot but regard as the practical certainty that they will be ultimately obliged to accept the eight-hour day.—*Woodrow Wilson.*

Only old fogeys will agree with Mr. Worthington, alias Col. George Harvey, that "presumed inevitableness does not constitute justification for a policy deemed to be inherently unsound." Up-to-date logicians will naturally smile at the suggestion that—perhaps in the present case—one cause may happen to be just and another unjust, regardless of the inevitable.

The loss of the Memphis was under circumstances which the commander's reports do not fully clear up. The first dispatch stated that "heavy seas came up very suddenly," and the second that "when the storm struck" the bursting of a steam pipe made the vessel unmanageable. As simultaneous dispatches from Santo Domingo refer to "a terrific storm which swept suddenly over the harbor," it would seem that the disaster was caused by a hurricane rather than by a tidal wave of volcanic origin. The analogy would thus rather be with the loss of American vessels at Samoa than with the driving of a cruiser two miles inland on the coast of Peru several years after the Civil War. Under the circumstances, the inquiry which will follow might undertake to ascertain why the hurricane—if hurricane it was—was not reported in advance from those stations which we and other Governments maintain along the Gulf and in the Caribbean to give warning of storms. Again, it is asserted that the famous harbor of Charlotte Amalie, which lies only a short distance east of that of Santo Domingo, and is equally exposed to storms from the southwest, is not "hurricane-proof." As we are on the point of purchasing Charlotte Amalie, and are hearing much of the fact that it can easily be converted into the Gibraltar of America, it might be well to inquire also if it is so perfectly landlocked that it will offer complete protection to shipping.

One part of the Administration's record

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stands forth in bold relief from previous policy—and it is a part that Hughes has not attacked. Since the enactment of part of Secretary Lane's conservation programme, notably the General Leasing act, the opening up of the national resources has gone forward with marked liberality. Over fifteen million acres of coal lands that under preceding Administrations had been withdrawn from public entry in the five States of Colorado, Montana, Idaho, Washington, and Wyoming have been restored; and the total withdrawal of coal land has been reduced from about 66,000,000 acres to about 46,000,000 acres. More than a million and a quarter acres classified as phosphate lands have been opened to entry, while less than a quarter million acres have been withdrawn. There is less that is novel about the opening to entry of the dry-farming lands, for this was made possible by the enlarged homestead law of 1909, but the fact that nearly eighty million acres have been offered is a striking index of the rapidity with which the West is being settled. In the matter of the mineral lands, the Government exercises due caution, for those of permanent value are protected by carefully drawn leases; and the new liberality is largely inspired by the constantly accumulating knowledge of the vastness of our resources. Field investigations of the last five years, for example, have increased the known reserves of rock phosphate in the Western States by nearly five billion tons, and the coal reserves by 400 billion tons—and there is still Alaska.

The semi-official German account of the battle of Jutland printed in the New York *Times* was evidently written for popular consumption and is more valuable as a specimen of German prose than as history. But one point of importance does emerge from the swirl of rhetoric, and that is the lesson for naval warfare drawn from the battle:

> The English have contended that airships and submarines have played a principal rôle in the battle. Against this it must be stated with all emphasis that the battle of May 31 has confirmed the old truth that only the great, powerful ship, the ship which within itself combines the greatest offensive and defensive power, rules the seas.

As a matter of fact Admiral Jellicoe's report makes no mention of Zeppelins and refers only to the sighting of submarines. So that the British and the German versions agree on the main lesson of the battle. The German statement is all the more significant because Berlin would naturally be anxious to emphasize the value of those naval elements in which Germany is superior and upon which popular hopes have fastened as the instruments for the humiliation of England. This joint verdict by the British and German Admiralties will be disconcerting to the facile experts in this country who have been revolutionizing warfare from the headlines and were dooming the battleship now from under the water and now from the air. But, on further thought, nothing disconcerts them.

It is not so much von Hindenburg the man as von Hindenburg the national hero and ideal whom the Kaiser has placed at the head of the German General Staff, so soon after raising him to the post of commander-in-chief of the German armies on the eastern front. It does not follow, because von Hindenburg knew the Masurian swamps like the palm of his hand and bagged his Russians by the hundreds of thousands, that he can bring the same minute knowledge to bear on the couple of thousand miles of German war-front with the same decisive effect. About him is the popular halo of victory, to be sure, but the victories he has to his credit are by no means the greatest that the German armies have won in the course of the war. Rather it is the personality of the man that impresses his countrymen in these serious times. The great bulk, the massive, unemotional face, the curt economy of words—these would appear to the German people, in adversity, as the embodiment of the fundamental national traits of rugged strength and patience to which Germany must now look. Her brilliant strategists and technicians have failed her. For the problem of *durchhalten* which now confronts her, she has recourse to the man whose very physical dimensions suggest the *feste Burg* to which a nation encompassed with enemies would turn for refuge.

Von Falkenhayn's dismissal is Germany's acceptance of a verdict of defeat around Verdun. It comes more than six months after the beginning of that gigantic adventure. Rumor has it that von Falkenhayn declared Verdun could be taken at a cost of half a million men. He has spent the men, the élite of the Kaiser's armies, and Verdun has only turned out a military defeat whose consequences may be observed in the west of France, in Russia, in the Trentino, and on the Isonzo, and a moral defeat whose consequences we now observe in the Balkans. But if von Falkenhayn has paid the price of failure, it is still true that to his credit stand the greatest achievements of the German armies in the war, achievements large enough, one might think, to excuse even so big a failure as Verdun. The conquest of Poland and the conquest of western Russia and the conquest of Servia were carried out under his auspices. The Mackensen "phalanx" which smashed the Russian line in Galicia has usually been described as Falkenhayn's idea; and it was Mackensen in Galicia who made von Hindenburg's advance possible in northern Poland. Most German arguments about the assurance of ultimate victory are based on the huge enemy territories which the Kaiser's armies now hold, and of these five-sixths were acquired under von Falkenhayn. His going, incidentally, has more than military significance. He has been spoken of as one of von Bethmann-Hollweg's strong supporters against von Tirpitz's following. It remains to be seen how far the Chancellor's position stands affected.

It will be a sad day for the self-styled "opponents of 'scuttle'" in the Philippines when the Moros are civilized. No longer will lecturers, speaking comprehensively of the 8,000,000 inhabitants of the islands, with an older university than any in America, as ignorant and half-savage, bolster their statements by stereopticon views laboriously procured among the few hundred thousand remote tribesmen of the Sulu group. Yet even these few hundred thousand are fast being converted to civilized ways. Bishop Brent is appealing for $16,000 for a hospital, for the Moro press, for the support of the Moro boy scouts, and for the Moro Agricultural School—all institutions belonging to culture rather than to barbarism. One of the army surgeons speaks of the new docility of the people in submitting to health measures. At the same time is published an address by Lieut.-Col. Traub to the civil constabulary, congratulating them on the fact that their control is now so firm that all troops have been withdrawn from Mindanao, Jolo, and Sulu, and that this achievement was accomplished "with a minimum of hatred on the part of the population, which in gradually increasing numbers came to help us, and, realizing the motives that actuate us, are heart and soul with us." Cannot the patriots who abhor "scuttle" buy a little island somewhere and hold a village of head-hunters as Exhibit A?

Hiram Johnson has won the bitter contest for the Republican nomination for Senator in California, and already there are signs of the "get-together" spirit that once was so great an asset of that party. The Chairman of the Republican State Committee and the Republican National Commit-

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teeman joined in a statement declaring: "The preservation of the Republican party hinges on the nomination. . . . Hiram Johnson is not a Republican." One of these men was quoted as announcing that he would abide by the result, and the other as saying that he would do his duty by the party. As in happier times, any man who is strong enough to carry a Republican primary is a good enough Republican to vote for. Johnson's victory is probably fortunate for the very men who opposed him so fiercely. If he had been defeated in the Republican primary, he would still have been the Progressive nominee, and his evident strength as a vote-getter would have boded ill for everybody except the Democratic candidate. As it is, the Republicans and the Progressives, willy nilly, are united for him for Senator. His enemies will simply have to accept the fact that the G. O. P. must give as well as take if bygones are to be bygones. His victory was needed, also, to offset for the Republicans the defection of that other mighty Progressive, Francis J. Heney, who is so thoroughly a Roosevelt follower as to find himself in the Wilson camp. A visit by the Colonel to the Golden State has piquant possibilities beside which the dilemma that faced Hughes was the merest incident.

Ex-Senator Root does well to remind the American Bar Association that legal education is in much the deplorable condition that medical education was a decade ago; for our bar associations will have to lead in improving its standards. The persistence of the tradition that any raw youth who works in an office for two years is a competent practitioner is as wide as was recently the one that any man hastily introduced to drugs and anatomy in a night school might take the lives of patients in his hands. It is still impossible to open a magazine without sight of advertisements of legal correspondence schools. Despite its traditions of a brilliant bar, the South is lamentably lax in its requirements, and even Massachusetts asks for only two years of training in evening school. Just as it was once believed that medical education might "pay" its promoters, so we shall have to learn that legal education ought not to be conducted for profit, but should be given in those State and endowed institutions which offer more than mere tuition can support. The remedy will lie in State laws upon the model of those achieved in a few States, as New York and Illinois, and these the body of educated lawyers should be in a good position to obtain. It is not merely, as Mr. Root points out, that the profession is so overcrowded that good lawyers starve, while clients are ill-served. The machinery of the courts is clogged because the practitioners do not know their business.

The old Lexington-Concord controversy, as to which town furnished the embattled farmers whose shot was heard round the world, is revived. It was Samuel Hoar who, in an oration upon Lafayette's second visit, awoke the local jealousies which have a faint echo to-day in the proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. In his time conflicting depositions were collected wholesale from the old residents, while now the historian laboriously cons over these documents, old prints, the evidence on the clash between colonials and regulars gathered by the Crown and by the Continental Congress, and other available sources. The weight of opinion inclines to Lexington as having offered the first forcible resistance. But it is a shock to the schoolboy picture of the Common bathed in smoke and fire to learn that this clash was brief, unpremeditated, and irresponsible, and that while on the British side one man and one horse were wounded, the man marched on to Concord and the horse bore his rider through the morning and at one o'clock found strength to run away. Lexington historians have contended that their townsmen deliberately held in battle ten times their number of British infantry; the fact is that they were dispersing when some hotheads fired as individuals. The latest investigator also has some remarks on the sensible retreat of the Concord men before the British advance. Plainly, it might have been better for some of the Lexington-Concord traditions had the controversy never been stirred up.

The 1916-1917 "Negro Year-Book" estimates that the colored race is now raising $1,500,000 yearly in this country for the support of schools—most of this probably going to denominational colleges and academies, but much being expended in rural districts upon primary schools. The Rosenwald Fund for building country schoolhouses, for example, offers contributions only to communities which have themselves raised an equal amount. For private and higher schools for the negro in 1914-15, the United States, the States, and the cities spent $703,356. For colored public schools the sixteen former slave States, the District of Columbia, and Oklahoma spent $10,665,000, which is a little more than one-ninth the amount expended for white public schools. Taking all schools and the country as a whole, to negro education was given less than $15,000,000—as against nearly $820,000,000 spent for education of the whites. The combined budgets of four or five of our largest universities would equal the amount spent on the separate education of our negro population! The spectacle of a none too prosperous negro population giving (for it) large sums ought to inspire more generosity among the whites.

An editorial career of nearly half a century comes to an end with the death of William Hayes Ward. But it is not so much the length of this career as its character that is noteworthy, Dr. Ward was one of a few preacher-editors who have been able to conduct a journal of general appeal. He came to the *Independent*, in his own words, "just after the brilliant but erratic rule of Mr. Tilton." That periodical had already abandoned any championship of Congregationalism it had ever assumed, and was undenominational, not to say secular. How well fitted Dr. Ward was for continuing this policy is indicated by some vigorous words of his own many years later. If the editor of a religious journal is a clergyman, as he is apt to be, he wrote, he is likely to edit for clergymen rather than for laymen. "The serious danger is his setting up as dictator. Generally, too, it is edited by rather old men who are in serious danger of being behind the thinking of their age. The religious papers were almost unanimously against tolerance even up to the time when the ministry was ready to decide in favor of liberty of views and of teaching." Dr. Ward did not attempt to prove his broadmindedness by making the *Independent* talk the language of the street. He aimed at joining agreeableness with seriousness, dignity with ease.

The recent visit of Anatole France to the Academy to take part in the work upon its steadily growing dictionary was thought to justify a place in the cabled news. The reason for his absence from the regular sessions has just become known. He is assisting in the preparation of the first Braille version of the "Petit Larousse." This, if transcribed exactly, would fill fifteen large volumes, and it is necessary to condense the definition of each word into a single line—a task demanding all Anatole France's lucidity of mind. It is reckoned that the war has brought the total of blind to 35,000, and France is awake to the necessity of providing libraries. The three existing libraries for the blind, which have contained but 40,000 volumes, are being added to as fast as possible; for it is pointed out that reading will not only entertain but help reëducate the unfortunates.

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CONGRESS STAMPEDED.

The strike situation at Washington changed swiftly. A few days ago, the idea that legislation decreeing the so-called eight-hour day for railway workers could be rushed through both House and Senate within forty-eight hours of its introduction would have been scouted as absurd. All the talk then was that to initiate the process of legislation, to make it plain that Congress was seriously considering the enactment of measures to meet the situation, would suffice to cause the heads of the Brotherhoods to stay their hand. Nobody that knew anything about the rules, and the spirit, of the Senate of the United States would have ventured to say that "the greatest deliberative body in the world" would throw its traditions to the winds, and enact in hot haste, without so much as the semblance of adequate discussion, an economic measure of far-reaching immediate consequences, and of consequences even more momentous in its character as a precedent.

The subject upon which Congress was asked to legislate in this haphazard fashion was, in itself, of sufficient complexity, in all conscience, to demand inquiry and discussion before action. But over and above its inherent complexities stood the peculiar confusion of issues which arose in the course of the frenzied proceedings of the past fortnight. "The eight-hour day" was the catchword of the Brotherhoods' contention; a catchword the correctness of which was challenged from the beginning, and which had literally no application whatever to the proposal which was rushed through Congress. As the Brotherhoods' demand first stood, the penalizing of overtime by a 50 per cent. addition to the standard rate of wages would have operated as a hindrance to the working of men more than eight hours in any one day; with that provision eliminated—with overtime paid simply pro rata—there is nothing whatever to cause the restriction of labor to the eight-hour limit. It is alleged, indeed, that with the eight-hour day as a basis for the present ten-hour scale of wages, the railways will be under pressure to make runs in shorter time; but if so, this will be solely because their labor has been made more expensive, and not at all on account of any prohibition or penalization of excessive hours. In other words, the bill was simply a decree that the wages of the men should be raised. That such a decree is beyond the constitutional powers of Congress is the opinion of many able and competent observers of the pending developments.

Whether, however, the matter be viewed as the establishment of a real eight-hour day—for such, it may be contended by some, will be the moral effect of the legislation—or as what it actually is on its face, a pure raising of the scale of wages, in either case it must be admitted by all that the measure proposed was one of high importance and fraught with far-reaching consequences. The question of the eight-hour day has not been peculiarly to the fore in recent years; it has been with us for something like half a century, and the progress of the idea has not been in a marked degree faster in the past ten years than in the preceding forty. Whatever its merits, surely a few days were too short for the Congress of the United States to come to a conclusion upon them; nor was there the faintest semblance of a mandate from the people on the subject. Moreover, if the assertion were made that such a mandate in any degree existed, surely its application would not be to a single selected class, a class of workmen more highly paid than almost any other that can be named.

As for a pure increase of wages—which is what the bill actually provides—it is not necessary to argue that no case has been made out for it in such form as to serve as a basis for Congressional action. Assuming that Congress is not inhibited by constitutional limitations from decreeing such increase, it is surely under at least as much obligation to make full inquiry before acting as would be a board of investigators or arbitrators. Its decision has behind it the full and immediate force of a law of the United States; to its enforcement is dedicated all the power, civil and military, of the nation. To declare that the wages of the men shall be raised, without inquiry into the equity of the wages they are now receiving, the practicability of the increase, the claims that may justly be made by other hundreds of thousands of employees upon the precedent of what has been granted to these—to do all this at an instant's notice, with all dissenting voices hushed into silence by political or official pressure—was to be false to the first duty of a parliamentary assembly.

The whole country will know that Congress has been the submissive victim of a hold-up. The one thing, be it noted, that might have tended in some degree to give the proceeding a different character was not contained in the legislation that has now been jammed through. In his address to Congress last week, speaking of his negotiations with the contending parties, the President said:

> *I was seeking to compose the present in order to safeguard the future;* for I wished an atmosphere of peace and friendly cooperation in which to take counsel with the representatives of the nation with regard to the best means for providing—so far as it might prove possible to provide—against the recurrence of such unhappy situations in the future the best and most practicable means of securing calm and fair arbitration of all industrial disputes in the days to come. This is assuredly the best way of vindicating a principle, namely, *having failed to make certain of its observance in the present, to make certain of its observance in the future.*

But in the bill there was not a word that was designed "to safeguard the future"; that portion of the President's recommendation which called for an orderly proceeding in future controversies was completely omitted. Whether it will be taken up by the next Congress, or the next after, or put off to the Greek kalends, no man can say. What the Brotherhoods demanded as their price for cancelling the strike order was to be paid down, without discount, by Saturday night; there was not the faintest pretence of doing anything to protect the country from a repetition of the humiliating experience of the past fortnight. Whether the averting of the strike was worth such a sacrifice of the nation's dignity, such a waiving of the nation's rights, is a question upon which we leave it to patriotic Americans to pass their own judgment.

MR. WILSON'S ACCEPTANCE.

Beyond all question, Mr. Wilson never penned a more brilliant document than his speech of acceptance. It is remarkably eloquent, is free from the rhetoric which sometimes hampers his utterances, is on a high plane, and moves to its points with a straightforward clarity and force which mark it as the work of a pastmaster of style and a political strategist of the highest order. Let no one be misled: whether one agrees with the President or not, here is a challenge to put the Republicans to their trumps. Beside it Mr. Hughes's speeches shrink to smaller dimensions than ever, while Mr. Roosevelt's vituperative bitterness appears merely the vulgar roaring of a corner politician. Nothing so far said or done since this campaign began approaches it. If Mr. Hughes cannot rise to its breadth of vision, or its power, his will be a difficult position indeed. If any Republican has believed that Mr. Wilson would be an easy antagonist, he must be undeceived now.

But it is not merely the brilliancy of the form which makes the President's speech so

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staggering a broadside. Its force comes in large part from the Democratic record of achievements. One may dissent vigorously from Mr. Wilson's view of the value of much of what has been done by Congress and its wisdom, as the *Nation* does, but one must admit that rarely if ever in our political history have so many preëlection promises been fulfilled. As Mr. Wilson points out, the roll of the party's achievements sounds more like a platform of pledges than the story of what has actually been accomplished. He might have added that if there had been no critical foreign issues to distract popular attention and give a handle to his adversaries, the extent of this legislative achievement would be universally recognized. No self-respecting Republican dares in this campaign to utter the old slander that the Democratic party is without constructive ability or the power to enact its policies into law.

More than that, Mr. Wilson on the foreign issues yields not an inch of ground. Confessing that he has made mistakes—itself a noteworthy admission from a man so self-willed, self-sufficient, and obstinate—he none the less sticks to his guns with an aggressiveness that cannot fail to tell. Here are both courage and confidence, and notably so in regard to Mexico. His original position as to Huerta he reiterates with the announcement that if reëlected he will be actuated by precisely the same principles which guided him in warring upon that "unspeakable" dictator. No one can accuse him of either "pussy-footing" or compromising on this question. If there are those who do not like the policy which Mr. Wilson has mapped out, he serves notice to them that their course is clear. By the side of Mr. Hughes's apparently cold-blooded indifference to the sufferings, the liberties, and the welfare of the Mexican people, it is refreshing indeed to have Mr. Wilson remind this country that, despite the indefensible Vera Cruz blunder, and the needlessly prolonged "pursuit" of Villa, we have as a nation lived up to the American belief that "the people of small and weak states have the right to expect to be dealt with exactly as the people of big and powerful states would be." And on the question of what is to come after the war, Mr. Wilson's reiteration of his position that the "nations of the world must unite in joint guarantees that whatever is done to disturb the whole world's life must first be tested in the court of the whole world's opinion before it is attempted," is so explicit that it may be counted on to widen the far-reaching ripples created in the embattled nations by his speech before the League to Enforce Peace. By contrast with Mr. Hughes's banal treatment of the subject, Mr. Wilson shines like a planet in the heavens.

We are far, however, from desiring to convey the impression that Mr. Wilson's speech is beyond criticism or cavil. His words are those of a special pleader seeking to justify his own record, and he has quite naturally omitted mentioning either the mistakes he has committed or the things he has left undone. We find no record here of his vacillations and shortcomings in relation to the European war. He does not attempt to defend his complaisance towards the labor unions; he is silent as to his shameful breach of faith towards the colored people, his betrayal of the party on the tariff principle, his change of front on the Tariff Commission, and other issues. There is no hint here of the arrogance with which, without adequate consultation with party leaders, he has single-handed changed the historic policies of his party. As if he had had a second thought on the matter of national defence, he barely touches upon the action of Congress in the field of "preparedness." He has put his best foot forward, but he cannot expect that the numerous blunders and disappointments of his Administration will be forgotten.

When one reads this speech one cannot but regret all the more that Mr. Wilson has not lived up to the promise of four years ago. Had he but remained true to the principles he had so often avowed, his reëlection would now be a moral certainty. Far more than the criticisms of his adversaries, Mr. Wilson's own shortcomings and compromises have to-day put many thousands of his former supporters in a quandary as to whether in voting for Mr. Hughes they will not, after all, be choosing the lesser evil. From this quandary the President's speech, for all its power, will not release them.

MR. HUGHES AT ST. LOUIS.

The relation of Mr. Hughes to the German-American vote has all along presented a most curious problem of political psychology. The spokesmen of that vote flung themselves into his arms long before he was nominated. They did not profess to have any substantial reason for counting on a return of their affection. But it was obvious that he was their one possible hope. Nearly all competent observers were agreed that Hughes would be the nominee of the Republican Convention; all were agreed that the only other person that had any chance at all for it was Roosevelt, and Roosevelt was a hopeless case for pro-Germans. Accordingly, the first principles of political necessity prescribed the annexation of Hughes, if it were possible. And his absolute silence on all questions throughout the pre-nomination period did make it possible to fix upon him, by sheer repetition, the position of German-American favorite.

At no time has Mr. Hughes uttered a syllable of encouragement to his Teutonic admirers. From the standpoint of every-day political strategy, of customary campaign ethics, this negative attitude towards them would fulfil all requirements. His position might by some be likened to that of the man who was asked to answer by a simple yes or no the question whether he had left off starving his grandmother. But it is by no such petty standards that this situation can be judged. Here is an issue which, in more than one way, has stirred the nation to its depths; an issue which, upon more than one critical occasion during the past eighteen months, has thrown all others into the shade. Are the German-Americans right in thinking (or having thought) that Mr. Hughes would, in any crisis which may arise in our relations with Germany, be actuated by a more friendly, a more conciliatory, spirit than has been shown by President Wilson? If yes, then the German-American press is justified in asking its special constituency to "fight mit Hughes"; if no, then there is no reason in the world why they should give their votes to him rather than to Wilson. And the whole country, moreover, has quite as vital an interest in the matter as have those citizens who are content to be denominated German-Americans.

Up to the time of the telegram to Col. Roosevelt, unqualifiedly approving his speech at Lewiston, nothing that Mr. Hughes had said in the campaign hit this mark squarely. But that telegram, followed as it has been by his speeches at St. Louis—the very focus of German-Americanism—and his refusal, in response to an interviewer's question there, to modify in any way his endorsement of the Lewiston speech, should suffice to rid Mr. Hughes, for good and all, of the support of German-Americans as such. If, as American citizens, they desire, all things considered, to vote for him, well and good; but they have no longer even the most shadowy basis for a belief that he favors in the smallest degree their views upon our relations with Germany. He had at no time cultivated their favor by uttering a word that could be construed into sympathy with their

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views; he has now taken a conspicuous opportunity to express sympathy with a view which they detest. If the German-American label should still in any degree stick to him, it will do so not in the minds of pro-Germans, but of those anti-Germans whose dislike of his silence had become too deep-rooted to be removed.

What has been lacking in Mr. Hughes's handling of this issue is the same thing as has been lacking in his entire conduct of the campaign thus far. In no aspect of it has he seemed to realize the need of making the impression of breadth of power, of creative energy. He has made dabs, first at this matter, then at that. The nation cannot be stirred to any deep feeling for a canvass of this kind, to any sense of genuine attachment to the candidate who presents himself in such a rôle. Any one of us can point out flaws in Wilson's record; any one of us can frame a fairly good statement of the merits of this or that special question of policy as we see it. What one wants in a candidate for the Presidency of the United States is that sense of an enlarged personality, of a more comprehensive vision, of a deeper realization of high responsibilities and opportunity, which the possibility of entering upon that great office, especially at this momentous time, may be expected to impress upon even a mediocre man. We are from wishing to say that Mr. Hughes is not, in fact, so impressed. We are still further from desiring that he should explicitly avow any such feeling; for nothing is more repulsive than the exploitation of such self-conscious sentiment. It is in the largeness of the treatment of great questions, a certain magnanimity in the tone, and breadth in the substance, of a candidate's utterances, that the spirit we have in mind should be revealed. And thus far, to the pained disappointment of his friends and admirers, there has been of these qualities hardly a trace in Mr. Hughes's speeches.

WILL HINDENBURG HIT OUT?

Disciplined Germany has been more lacking in unity of purpose than supposedly temperamental France. Among many enemies Germany has found it hard to decide who is the real enemy. Von Tirpitz insisted that the real enemy was England, and von Tirpitz is gone. Von Falkenhayn maintained that the real enemy was France, and von Falkenhayn is gone. He is succeeded by von Hindenburg, who holds that the real enemy is Russia. And from a practical point of view the last opinion is the right one. For the morale of a nation beset with foes it is undoubtedly most heartening to assert that the real enemy is the one whom you can beat. Von Tirpitz failed against England. Von Moltke and von Falkenhayn failed against France. Von Hindenburg has been repeatedly successful against Russia. It does not matter that the great campaign against Russia was the work of others beside von Hindenburg. Upon him as the Terror of the Russians has fallen popular credit for Germany's greatest achievement. His promotion to the head of the German military machine is thus a logical step independent of political and personal considerations. And the logical inference would be that after the abandonment of submarine warfare, and after the failure around Verdun, the next attempt by Germany will be on the eastern front.

Provided, that is, Germany has the strength to deliver a new blow in a new direction. That, of course, is the vital factor for the future of the war. Does von Hindenburg's promotion mean that Germany has a new army with which to hit out and is entrusting it to her only successful general? Or does it mean that Germany is facing the necessity of drawing in her lines and has entrusted an unpopular task to the most popular man in the Empire? Neither supposition is probable. The second would be a confession of defeat so palpable as to be justified only by a state of affairs in Germany much worse than we have reason to suspect. But it is almost as hard to imagine Germany once more on the offensive. During the ten weeks of the great Russian drive against the Austrians the natural question in most minds was when would Germany deliver its counter-attack against Brussiloff; and that meant, of course, when would von Hindenburg deliver his blow against the Russian line on the Dvina. No such attempt was made. While Russia was garnering nearly 400,000 Austrian prisoners, overrunning Bukowina and southern Galicia, and hammering at the Carpathian passes, von Hindenburg did nothing. And the inevitable conclusion is that it was not choice, but necessity. The old Field-Marshal did not have the men with which to throw himself against Kuropatkin and send Brussiloff scurrying back for his life. These men had been used up at Verdun.

If Germany had the men for a counter-stroke against Russia, the attempt would have been made before this, and for various reasons: to relieve the pressure on Austria, to exercise moral suasion on Rumania, who might have been well impressed by a German victory, and to take advantage of the season. The beginning of the Russian winter is in sight. Last year the great German advance into Russia halted in the third week of September. It is true that von Hindenburg won a winter battle in February, 1915, and that the campaign against Servia began at the end of last September. But there can be no comparison between the week's battle near the Masurian Lakes, or the Teuto-Bulgar procession against an enemy outnumbered three to one, and the task involved in an attempt along the east front, whether against the Russians in the north, or the Russo-Rumanians in the centre, or against the Allies in the Balkans. With the approach of winter the chances of a German movement on a large scale become dim. If the attempt has not been made up to now, the reason would be that the men are lacking, and that they will be lacking for some time to come.

What next spring will show it is rash to predict. It is not out of the bounds of probability that Germany, gathering her strength for the final effort, will strike out hard. The attack may come somewhat further to the south than where Mackensen delivered his blow in the spring of 1915: from southern Galicia along the Dniester toward Czernowitz and Bessarabia. A victory there would split asunder Russia from Rumania and the Allies in the Balkans. Until that surprise is prepared, if it is ever prepared, von Hindenburg's mission is a defensive one. He must hold the lines and practice a rigid economy of forces to make up the prodigal outlay around Verdun. More than ever it will involve a rapid shuttling of Teuton troops along the long line from the Baltic to the Danube. For this task von Hindenburg has his unparalleled experience in railway warfare against the Russians.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE FORD DIVIDEND.

In a quieter time, the statement that the profits of the Ford Motor Company for the fiscal year ending July 31 amounted to $60,000,000—more exactly $59,994,118—would loom large in the newspapers and be a leading subject of general attention. The stupendous war dwarfs everything of this kind, however extraordinary, into insignificance; and just at this moment the crucial question of the railway strike absorbs the immediate interest of the American people. But it is worth while to pause for a moment's contemplation of some aspects of this unique phenomenon in industrial success.

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Mr. Ford's own comment on the showing, as quoted in Detroit dispatches, was characteristic. Along with the special talent that has doubtless been the prime cause of his amazing prosperity, he has shown on more than one occasion a quality which it is impossible to designate by any other term than childishness. Of the generosity, the true good-will toward men, which animated him in the devotion of a large part of his super-abundant profits to the liberal payment of his employees, we have not the smallest doubt; but while that proceeding was generous, it is idle to contend that it was a feat of skill or foresight, or that it represents the solution of any problem that other men find difficult. "When we announced our profit-sharing plan," says Mr. Ford, "there were hundreds of manufacturers who said it couldn't be done. They declared it wouldn't work. Our statement shows whether it has worked or not. We had a wonderful year, and it will enable us to give employment to a steadily increasing number of men." We are not in a position to deny that some manufacturers said that "it couldn't be done"; but it is difficult for us to imagine how any reasonable person could assert that it would be impossible for a concern that was making $20,000,000 a year profit to establish a minimum wage of $5 a day which would absorb $10,000,000 of that profit. What reasonable persons did say was that, while Mr. Ford's act might stimulate interest in the general subject of profit-sharing, it was not itself an instance of profit-sharing upon any principle of general applicability. The Ford concern was making a net profit of about a thousand per cent. a year on its original capital, and this rate was steadily increasing; most manufacturing establishments have to work hard to make ten per cent., are doing extremely well if they make twenty, and have to be constantly taking into account the possibility of their profits in a given year being wiped out altogether. All this is no reason why methods of profit-sharing should not be worked out; only it shows that Mr. Ford's example throws no new light upon how they may be devised so as to work successfully.

But, apart from all questions of this kind, the dazzling magnitude of the profit is itself sufficient to challenge imagination and to provoke reflection. The rapidity with which the scale of great fortunes, especially American fortunes, has changed in the past few decades is something the like of which the world has probably never before witnessed. Men now hardly past middle life were brought up with the idea that the Astor fortune represented the boundless possibilities of profit in real-estate investments, the Vanderbilt fortune the result of control of transportational opportunities, while the name of A. T. Stewart stood forth as that of the merchant prince *par excellence*. Two or three decades later, these were thrown into the shade, especially as regards rapid accumulation of colossal wealth, by the names of Carnegie and Rockefeller. But even the Carnegie and Rockefeller fortunes appear to have been piled up by a hard, slow, and lumbering process when one sees this great golden stream flowing into the coffers of a man who not long ago was a simple mechanic, who has had no recourse to combination or manipulation or oppression or extortion, who has simply offered his wares to a public eager to buy them, and distanced his competitors by no other art than that of turning out his product by more perfect or more economical methods than they have been able to devise or execute. Mr. Ford has simply made automobiles and the public has bought them.

And while the income of Mr. Ford stands alone in its startling and sudden magnitude, a little reflection will suffice to show that there are many examples not so far away from it but that they would have been accounted astonishing not many years ago. These successes have been due to the enormous scale on which any standardized kind of business can now be carried on, even without the aid of any privilege in the shape of patents, or of control of natural resources, or of any monopolistic devices. In a nation of a hundred million people, with the means of purchasing comforts and modest luxuries so widely diffused as they are among us, and with the facilities both of advertising and of transportation so highly developed, to be the foremost, or one of the foremost, in any line is to tap a vein richer than the mines of Golconda. The veriest trifle, if everybody wants it, means much; to get an average of a cent a year of profit out of 100,000,000 people means an income of a million dollars to the man who finds himself in that position. Out of this state of things have arisen scores of great fortunes, many hundreds of lesser ones; and while the name of Astor still remains the single shining example of the possibilities of the "unearned increment" on the value of land, a list of great length might be made of those who have become not only millionaires, but multi-millionaires, by the simple process of successful handling of industrial problems or successful catering to the wants of their hundred million fellow-citizens.

Foreign Correspondence

VAE VICTIS — BERLIN PROFESSORS, JAURES'S INTERNATIONALE, FORMULA FOR NEUTRALS.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, August 15.

Since correspondence like this can pretend to no completeness of news, I seek rather to relate news that may illustrate principles involved in this war. From the beginning, there have been two sets of principles.

One starts from "War is war" and "Necessity knows no law" and ends in "Might makes right." The other holds that "Right is right and wrong is wrong" in war as much as in peace, and that acts of war, to be justified, must not only be right in themselves, but must also be for the just ends of war. Now the end and aim of war is to force your enemy to do your will; and so acts of war, to be just, must tend only to this end, that is, to destroying his military force which alone enables him to resist your will. Whose will is right and whose will is wrong is a question previous to acts of war.

It follows that extermination of the enemy is not war at all, and enslavement of the enemy population is not war. This excludes also conquest by war, unless you begin war to take your neighbor's field and clear it of his presence. Then we get back to the right and wrong of your own will before you began fighting at all.

Seven professors of the University of Berlin, some of whom signed the manifesto of the "ninety-three" German Intellectuals when they learned what the world at large thought of their methods of war, have now, after two years' more experience, addressed a new appeal to the German people. It is the latest pronouncement in theory concerning our two principles.

"From all time, for centuries, we have been a peaceful people. Our Empire was unable to come to birth without a preparatory war, but that was a necessity of history which fate imposed on us. The German Empire, once constituted, wished only peace — and the space — necessary to honorable work which can prosper only in peace. . . . We have not taken the sword to make conquests. But now that we have had to unsheathe the sword, we will not and we cannot sheathe it again without securing a peace which our enemies shall be bound to keep. And such a peace cannot be had without an increase of our power—without an extension of the domain in which our will shall decide of war and peace. For that, we must have surer and more effective guarantees. There is but one opinion on this point among all Germans."

"Space," "extension of domain," "surer and more effective guarantees," seem formulas of one who should spell Babylon and wish us to pronounce Jerusalem. On the day after these formulas came to the knowledge of the outer world through Switzerland, there was a memorial celebration in Paris on the second anniversary of the death of Jaurès. Emile Vandervelde, a leader of Belgian Socialists and of Belgian patriots and called by war to be a Belgian Minister of State, spoke at it of their old-time confidence in the Internationale:

"At the beginning of this war one of our

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most steadfast militants, our comrade, Arthur Henderson, who is now a member of the British Government, said to me, 'Do not forget the Internationale.' We do not forget it, and we prove it by our attitude. They asked us to set up again at once our international relations, and we refused, because it is impossible to join hands with those who have compounded with the two Emperors unchaining war."

The German university professors assure us, "There is but one opinion on this point among all Germans." So it is no longer kings becoming delirious and peoples being stricken. Kaiser and Sozial-Demokratie, schoolmasters and scholars, all together, even in these last days of weariness from war, still demand space and extension of domain for themselves in their neighbors' fields—in Belgium and France and Servia and Poland and further—"in which our will shall decide of war and peace." Against all this, Emile Vandervelde, in the name of Socialism and of his country and of the mutilated Internationale, can only demand "liberation" of territory and "reparation" of wrongs from German rulers and the German people willing and warring together.

Even neutrals can no longer doubt the incompatibility of the first set of principles, which Germany consistently professes, with the second set, which none of the Allies has repudiated. A ruder awakening of conscience has come to neutrals in this latter-day progress of war.

The guns begin to thunder, and the drums begin to beat.
(If you take the first step you will take the last.)

The last, up to this writing, is very pitiful. It is the deliberate carrying off into slavery, under military orders with military slave-drivers and a band of military music at the head, of more than twenty-five thousand young French non-combatants, men and women from sixteen to fifty-five years of age, in provinces invaded and occupied by the Germans, in the cities of Lille and Tourcoing and Roubaix. Except for the great number of victims thus taken at one time, the same policy is being steadily carried out in Belgium and in Poland. Austria, which is an extension of Germany, pursues the policy in Servia to the extermination of the encumbering native population. This week authentic news has come that the very forests of that country are to be cut down, so that its people may no longer have even the shadow of their protection. "They make a waste and call it peace," said a Latin historian of like "surer and effective guarantees."

Minister of State Vandervelde, Socialist and patriot, deprecates the application by the Allies of another formula which has been proposed for the successful carrying out of what he himself calls "this war of defence." It is the "economic war" which should follow the "political war." This week, too, brings us confirmation of the economic union with Austria which is a part of Germany's essential policy. Jaurès and the Internationale before the war opposed every step taken by France to prepare against Germany's military union. No one in his senses dreams that there can be any corresponding economic union among the Allies. The formula has been used in their various conferences, only to indicate a needed line of defence when the killing and enslaving are finished. Otherwise, they plead, the German will to decide of war and peace will prepare new aggression—Zoll-Verein giving the hand to Krieg-Verein.

Neutrals—Americans—need formulas, not to speak of principles, quite as much as belligerent Germany and the Allies. An economic war of defence, like any other, should be limited to breaking your enemy's will of aggression. Before her military war Germany was rapidly gaining more than her share of the world's trade. It was not merely that Germans were efficient and Americans inefficient. They had political helps which are not in the natural business competition of countries. These were sometimes privileges which Germany had managed to obtain by skilful interpretation of treaties or by creating customs for which she claimed force of treaties or by sharp practice. She used the Treaty of Frankfort, to which she had forced France after the war of 1870, in this way; and she profited by the unwillingness of the French Republic to enter into diplomatic conflicts behind which she took care there should always sound the threat of war. Then Germany persuaded American pacifists that France was on the point of troubling the peace of the world. The professors of Berlin say still: "The German Empire was not to have what it sought. The thirst of vengeance, the conquering greed, the industrial jealousy of its neighbors, have obliged it to take up arms to save itself."

Economically, in France, Germans had "the most-favored-nation treatment"; Americans have never had it. When war is over, are Americans going to darken counsel by words without knowledge, so that Germany shall be put back in her privileged position of before the war—privileged over themselves? Emile Vandervelde when he deprecates economic war does not mean that.

Before all economy of peace, Germany must suffer the natural consequences of her own actions; and that is all the Allies have demanded with any voice of authority. The only help to permanent peace which neutrals, the true Internationale, pacifists, and the like can hope to give depends on their accepting this logic of principles and of events. Otherwise they will only help to the spread of this latter-day gospel of efficiency, in which might makes right and "Nothing succeeds like success."

CALIBAN REGENERATED.

By A. J. BARNOUW.

THE HAGUE, August 12.

When Caliban, in Renan's philosophic sequel to Shakespeare's "Tempest," "le grand citoyen Caliban," has become the leader of the new democracy, Ariel explains to Prospero the course of events that led up to the monster's usurpation of power: "This is the heyday of realism. Wonder and magic have had their day. The ideal, the non-substantial no longer exists. The people admits the real only. The people has turned positivist." But Prospero will not confess himself beaten. "If that is so," he says, "we must try to make reality of the old illusions. We must transform our airy spirits into powders and gases."

These words are modern history in a nutshell. A Calibanic democracy is doomed to ultimate collapse. The mob, once freed from superstitious fears, may for a time usurp supremacy by means of violence and force of arms. But a rule whose claim to power is not based on superiority of mind will soon stoop again to the control of those who, like Prospero, can justly make a claim thus based. The French Revolution was a short interregnum of Caliban, of a seemingly civilized Caliban, but morally and mentally little better than the savage monster of the enchanted island. And, soon after, Prospero resumed his rule over the usurper. But this modern magician works his will by no illusory visions, by no spiritual agents. The king of Shakespeare's fairy island has become the scientist who in the secrecy of the laboratory transforms his Ariel and other elves into powders and gases. Renan has religiously believed in this Prospero turned scientist, and in man's salvation by his art. An ever increasing number of scholars of various nationalities, coöperating in the gradual conquest of nature by a steadily growing knowledge of its eternal laws, should create a consciousness of the one common interest uniting all nations and prepare the way from the conflict of national ambitions to universal brotherhood and peace.

But the Europe of to-day seems to give the lie to this beautiful prophecy. The scientist has advanced in knowledge much farther than Renan could have dreamed of, but he has not made it an instrument of peace. He has robbed nature of her secrets only to learn from her how to destroy. The scientist has debased his science to a tool in the hands of militarism, and Caliban, the people, who was to have been ennobled by its teaching, is only taught to act the beast scientifically.

Are we, then, to despair of a better world such as Renan loved to imagine? That is the question which must occupy the minds of men. And he who suggests a means of escape from despair, who tries to solve the problem how science can henceforth be prevented from being an accomplice of war, has a right to our gratitude. Such a man is Mr. H. Dunlop, of Delft in Holland, the writer of a fascinating little book entitled "The Supreme Will, or the Danger of a Premature Peace." Though he writes in English, Mr. Dunlop is a Hollander by birth. He is well known in this country as the writer of an excellent book on Persia, for which he gathered the material during a twelve years' residence in that country, first at Shiras from 1890 to 1897, afterwards at Teheran until 1903. As a pacifist he is a great admirer of the contemplative nature of the East, "that treasure-house of human thought," as he calls it. "Wrestling with reluctant nature to conquer her, forgetting all the rest, forgetting even her noble self in the fray, the West lost her soul . . . for a time. She will find it again as soon as she returns to the Holy Books that the East alone could give her."

The fundamental error of Western thought, according to the author, is the notion that mankind is subject to the laws of nature, and that war, being a natural phenomenon, insures that survival of the fittest which is the secret of nature's perpetuity. Individual man has, indeed, to bow before the natural law, but the history of civilization shows that the destiny of mankind is to "find out what are the laws of nature, and to subjugate them to man's own will and purpose." That war in the body politic is equally unavoidable as are illness and death to the individual body is the fatal sophism on which the German nation has been fed by its learned professors for the last forty years. It was a useful sophism to the military caste of Germany and Austria, as it helped to breed that spirit of aggressiveness which was to serve the ambitious schemes of German expansion. The teaching of the gospel of war as a divine law

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of nature is responsible for that Prussian ultra-militarism which, on the strength of that gospel, has summoned science to become the handmaid of war. And this Prussian state of mind, warped by false doctrines and a strained sense of patriotism, will remain a menace to the peace of Europe and the world, if this war ends in a deadlock, leaving Germany neither victorious nor vanquished and the military caste, in consequence, still on its high pedestal, adored by an idolatrous nation for having defended it against an alleged attack from traitorous enemies. Not until the subjects of the house of Hohenzollern realize that they have been deceived by the caste whose interests they have blindly served may we expect a change in the mental attitude of that nation. It is for the armies of the Allies to bring that truth home to them.

But if the Allies succeed in defeating Prussian militarism, an old illusion, often ridiculed, will, under the stress of circumstances, have come true: the combined armies of France, Great Britain, Russia, and Italy will have acted as the international police whose power constitutes the only possible sanction of international law. Why, then, should those Powers not go a step further and declare their intention to make this constabulary task, forced upon them by the course of events, their permanent and voluntary duty? "They should at once inform all the Powers which up to now have remained neutral that such is their intention, and that Europe, policed by an international army, and the oceans by an international fleet, are what they are fighting for." They would, of course, have to allow each European state to take its share in policing reunited Europe, as soon as peace is restored, each state contributing to the international force in proportion to its population. This force would have to be distributed over the various countries of the United States of Europe, and the detachment stationed in each country would, for one part, consist of natives of that country, and, for the remaining three parts, of soldiers from all the other nationalities. Such a substitution of an international police force for national armies would have little chance of being accepted by Germany, unless German militarism were broken and the German people, taught by adversity, forswore the false belief in might's superiority over right and in the regenerating magic of war. The moral support of the principal neutral Powers might help the Allies in bringing the German nation to reason. "If the United States of America, Spain, Rumania, Sweden, and Norway were to declare to Germany and her allies that, unless they agreed to the proposal for a united Europe, these five states would, one and all, decline any further direct intercourse during the war, the Central Powers would at last know that their cause is hopeless and welcome the union of Europe as the only way out of the *impasse* into which their aggressiveness has brought them. Such a declaration would not constitute a *casus belli*. Firstly, there would be no precedent. And to propose to Germany to carry on diplomatic relations only through the International Court of Arbitration at The Hague could not possibly be construed by that Power as an unfriendly act."

The intricacies and entanglements of international relations are various and manifold, and the author is well aware of the impossibility of creating the millennium by one stroke of the magician's wand. Even if all the European states were to agree to the formation of an international armed force as a substitute for national armies, the seeds of racial hatred and fresh wars would not have been sterilized. They would only have a worse chance of shooting. To choke them up effectively, a great many other changes would have to be brought about, such as the substitution of universal free trade for protective tariffs, the democratization of government in Germany, the Dual Monarchy, and Russia, to mention only a few of the many conditions without which a peaceful union of Europe will never be achieved. His book does not pretend to deal with the subject exhaustively. Its chief aim is to sketch a possible—skeptics will think a Utopian—scheme for "The United States of Europe," under no hegemony of autocratic Germany, but ruled by the supreme will of European democracy, by Caliban regenerated.

Psycho-Analysis Debated

CRITICISM OF THE ESSAY ON JUNG'S "PSYCHOLOGY OF THE UNCONSCIOUS" AND PROFESSOR FITE'S REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Fite's review in the *Nation* of August 10, of Jung's book, "The Psychology of the Unconscious," is such a biassed, unscientific, and distorted criticism of an important subject that I cannot refrain from voicing a protest. Some of your readers may be sufficiently broad-minded and have a sufficient regard for the truth to want to be enlightened. Jung's book is neither "incoherent" nor "obscene." A scientific medico-psychological book written for scientists and psychologists and with a scientific motive cannot properly be designated as "obscene" although it deals with sexual impulses and their influence on the mind. Freud's and Jung's and Ricklin's writings are no more obscene than Darwin's and Wallace's were heretical and impious, although their critics and envious detractors in their ignorance said they were. I am not defending Jung's book or his departures from Freud's teachings; but ordinary fairness cries out against your reviewer's misrepresentations. Incidentally permit me to remark that neither Freud nor Jung and their followers (Adler, Jones, Bleuler, Putnam, Jeliffe, White, etc.) are superficial thinkers, as Professor Fite would have them appear. They too know a hawk from a handsaw. To be strictly fair and scientific your reviewer should not have combined in one essay the criticism of two such wholly different schools of thought as that of Freud and of Jung. How Jungism differs from Freudism I have discussed elsewhere.

Professor Fite admits that his typewriter wrote "Indiana" instead of "Indian" for a reason. That is all that the Freudian claims. But when Mr. Fite says that according to the Freudians his typewriter meant to say "Indiana" he is guilty of a misrepresentation. The Freudian says only that where there is no other adequate explanation for such mistakes then an unconscious motive must be predicated. Any one whose knowledge of Freud is not gained from the reading of a few translations or of a few popular essays on the subject knows this. Only the caricaturist of Freud's teachings says that when a learned professor meets a former student without recognizing him it means that he has a grudge against him. To a Freudian it means only that he never had a sufficient interest in that pupil to know him. The notable students the professor does know. No Freudian ever said anything so absurd as that when a person dreams of his father's funeral it means that he is in a hurry to have his funeral take place. Your reviewer evidently knows nothing about Freud's theory of dreams or the difference between the manifest dream and the thoughts behind it. He does not even know how to interpret the ten-year-old boy's anticipated pleasure in telling his mother, from whose funeral he is returning, of the funeral. I suspect that there is nothing more demoniacal behind his thought than the wish to find his mother alive when he got home. That a hysteric's muscular contractions do have a meaning is a certain corollary of the law that all human actions have a meaning. The disproof of this law lies upon those who would deny the law of psychic determinism.

Professor Fite's statement that "The [Freudian] wish is invariably a sexual wish" is such a mischievous misrepresentation of the truth that it deserves to be called by the shorter and uglier word. Freud has always maintained that our wishes are of a two-fold nature: egoistic (tending to the preservation of the individual) and sexual (tending to the propagation of the species), and that either may account for the psycho-pathological phenomena of every-day life as well as for dreams, fantasies, and neuroses. Frustrated ambition or the temptation to rob one's employer is just as likely to cause a neurosis as disappointment in a love-affair. It is not true that Freud considers all explanations incomplete until the sexual motive is found. To a scientist of the right dye it does not matter whether Jung's or Freud's theories are "edifying," but whether they are true.

The theory of a "double conscience" or "dual personality" which so amuses your reviewer is by no means new and is not a peculiarly Freudian conception. From the time of Charcot this has become a truism with all competent practical psychologists who are *not* content to get their knowledge from musty books. Freud differs from his predecessors only in having introduced the dynamic theory, in having explained what others as well as he had observed. That the conscious self is always a fool is one of your reviewer's brilliant deductions to which he is welcome. "Caricature whatsoever you will not or cannot understand" is your reviewer's principle.

That Professor Fite knows nothing of Freud's theory of hysteria is certain from his assertion that when the repression is "intense" it manifests itself in hysteria. In truth, hysteria results not from the intensity of the repression, but from the failure of the attempted repression. The hysterical symptom is the recurrence of the repressed matter. Your reviewer's bias and ignorance appear also in his statement that the hysteric's dreams are interpreted according to a cipher elaborated by the Freudians. Nothing has more insistently been emphasized by us than that each patient must furnish the clue to his own symbols. There is nothing more truly one's own than his symbols. "Walking up a stairway" is no more absurd as a sexual symbol than the vulgar reference to the *membrum virile* as a "tool" or to coitus as "packing a trunk."

Psychoanalysts are not jealous of the achievements of the psychologists. The boot is on the other foot. Nothing in recent years

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can compare with the brilliance and utility of Freud's contributions to a genuine understanding of the human soul. That is why some psychologists deny that there is any truth in his teachings, while others admit their truth but deny that there is anything new in them.

The statement made by Professor Fite that "ordinary forgetting" is an abnormal phenomenon is as absurd as it is false Freud has never asserted more than that in addition to the ordinary causes for forgetting there is also a forgetting which is the result of repression. Your reviewer's surprising conclusion that "the mental disturbances of neurosis are only an extreme form of what is common to normal life" expresses the truth exactly, though he regards it as an absurd deduction from Freud's teachings. That your reviewer lacks the scientist's temper is evident from his offhand rejection of the theory of unconscious cerebration—something that many non-Freudian psychologists regard as almost axiomatic. Professor Fite's theory of infinite varieties of degrees of consciousness is a mere trick of desperation, like James's theory of fragments of split-off consciousness. That the Freudian theory of the unconscious is logical and scientific has been proved by many competent thinkers, notably by Bernard Hart and Bleuler.

I must content myself with these few illustrations of your reviewer's method of misrepresenting what he does not understand. In the light of his method it is not at all surprising to find him rejecting Freud's theories and technique as unscientific. But I think it needs no ghost to come from the grave to tell us that Professor Fite is not the man to tell us what is "scientific."

SAMUEL A. TANNENBAUM, M.D.

New York, August 15.

PSYCHO-ANALYSIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one who has undergone psycho-analysis, but not as one who professes it, may I be permitted some brief comments on Professor Fite's article in the *Nation*? His fondness for the phrase "demoniacal possession" will mislead, I am afraid, many inquirers. It is a poetical expression for a sober, scientific fact; just as Stevenson's Jekyll and Hyde story is an artistic exaggeration of familiar human truth. There is no real cleavage between the conscious and the repressed memories or wishes, but from harmless and quite unrepressed hunger and thirst to incestuous or perverted sexual lusts there is a progressive diminution of consciousness, so that psycho-analysis has named all those memories and wishes which are not readily recognized and avowed "unconscious." They are all discoverable by introspection, but are never entertained and are immediately forgotten, so that most people are unaware of them. The stronger they are, the more they obtrude; and the worse they are from a moral standpoint, the more severely they are repressed. Hence arises a conflict, of which by its very nature the sufferer is unconscious, which too often results in a diseased psychic state. The repressed lusts disguise themselves and in unrecognized forms interfere with all normal thought, speech, and action; and the repressive forces, dread, anxiety, etc., spread over the whole mind and cause muscular contractions, such as stammering, or cripple the mind with inhibitions, obsessions, etc. It is hard to tell which brings the more harm, Mr. Fite's devil or the weapons employed against him.

Psycho-analysis cures this conflict not by exorcism, not even by instruction, but by freeing the sufferer's own perception and will. There is no "cipher" of dream-symbolism, although certain symbols have been found to be nearly universal and certain methods of dream-building are persistent (*e. g.*, a condition or word is often used for its exact opposite, a process not unknown to students of philology and etymology—as our word "cleave" means one thing, "cleave to," however, the contrary—so that a wintry environment in a dream may mean heat). Each patient discovers his own symbolism, through its recurrence in dream after dream, just as the meaning of a new word is found from reading it in various contexts. Through his dreams, or if he is not a prolific dreamer (a rare case for one troubled with psychic conflicts) by more laborious methods of introspection and cross-examination, each patient is made aware of the lusts he is repressing, so that they are proved out of his own mouth and can no longer be denied or repressed. There follows what a theologian would call a conviction of sin, lightened by the consciousness of greater knowledge than most of mankind possesses, and easily transformed into a healthy will to use the passion that has been wasted on repressed lusts, and the determination exerted in repressing them, for some larger and more helpful end. This is called sublimation.

Briefly, such is the process; and it can only be clouded by talk of demons or over-emphasis on sex. To oppose psycho-analysis because it usually finds repressed wishes to be sexual is to maintain that neurotic sufferers had better remain uncured than that sexual abnormalities should cease to be unrepressed.

SAMUEL A. ELIOT, JR.

Asticou, Me., August 13.

PROFESSOR FITE'S REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to Dr. Tannenbaum's objections to the article on "Psycho-Analysis and Sex-Psychology," in the *Nation* of August 10, I beg to offer the following:

(1.) Dr. Tannenbaum is not, I believe, "guilty of misrepresentation," but he has clearly failed to read carefully what I have written. For example (a), he writes:

> That Professor Fite knows nothing of Freud's theory of hysteria is certain from his assertion that when the repression is "'intense" it manifests itself in hysteria. In truth hysteria results not from the intensity of the repression, but from the failure of the attempted repression.

What I wrote was:

> And this control [of the unconscious by the conscious self] results in a certain repression of desire, a *conflict* between the conscious and the unconscious selves, which, when intense, manifests itself in hysteria.

The word "conflict" was not italicized in the original. If this word be taken as the antecedent of "which," correction of my interpretation of Freud's theory is superfluous.

(b) "Professor Fite admits that his typewriter wrote 'Indiana' instead of 'Indian' for a reason." I admitted nothing of the kind. And I thank God that I am not, like my critic, Dr. Tannenbaum, one of those who confound reason with cause. Everything, perhaps, has a cause—and thus my substitution of "Indiana" for "Indian." But only actions that are consciously (or "unconsciously") *meant* can be said to have a reason. This distinction is vital for any statement of Freud's theory. According to my statement of his theory, Freud teaches—in opposition to the common view, that many of our words and acts are, from the standpoint of meaning, merely "accidental"—that a reason, *i. e.*, a meaning, must be assumed for every human action, including, *e. g.*, mistakes of speech. In this statement I am said to be "guilty of misrepresentation." This accusation I shall answer presently (under 3*b*). Here I will suggest merely that the importance of the accusation may be estimated from the fact that the paragraph in which it appears closes with the assertion (on behalf of the Freudians, we may presume) of the "law that all human actions have a meaning." This is doubtless not "obscene," but it is certainly "incoherent."

(c) "The statement made by Professor Fite that 'ordinary forgetting' is an abnormal phenomenon is as absurd as it is false." I suspect that this is Dr. Tannenbaum's way of saying that I attributed this statement to Freud; for I made no such statement. The next sentence but one reads: "Your reviewer's surprising conclusion that 'the mental disturbances of neurosis are only an extreme form of what is common to normal life' expresses the truth exactly, though he regards it as an absurd deduction from Freud's writings." Alas! may I leave nothing to the imagination of the reader? Surely the "For," which begins the sentence following the passage quoted by my critic, should be enough to indicate that, so far from treating this as an "absurd deduction," I regarded it as a very reasonable deduction—*and therefore quite unsensational.* To repeat my point, hysteria and normal forgetfulness may differ only in degree. But a total difference of attitude is involved in the question whether we are to treat an hysterical obsession as only exaggerated forgetfulness or accuse the man who has forgotten his latch-key of incipient hysteria.

(d) Dr. Tannenbaum tells me that I do "not even know how to interpret the ten-year-old boy's anticipated pleasure in telling his mother, from whose funeral he is returning, about the funeral." This is very disgusting. Let him read the first sentence of my next paragraph: "Still, says the Freudian, the suggestion itself points to an underlying wish." Dr. Tannenbaum suspects that "there is nothing more demoniacal behind this thought than the wish to find his mother alive when he got home." So do I. So would any one but a psychologist of the school of Freud and Jung; and, therefore, I did not specify. Indeed, one may suspect little, if anything, more than an *expectation,* fostered by habit, of finding his mother at home.

(2.) Dr. Tannenbaum objects to "incoherence and obscenity" as applied to Jung's "Psychology of the Unconscious." Now, it is a rather awkward task to substantiate a charge of obscenity in a journal not strictly "scientific." But since the Freudians insist that objections to their psychology express merely an ethical prejudice, it may be well to offer a sample of Jung's intellectual quality. The young woman whose experiences furnish the text of his work saw in one of her inspirations a young Aztec prince, Chiwantopel by name, riding forth on a horse (a sexual symbol) in search of the one maiden by whom he would be understood. Understood! Ah, that is significant. For, remember, the long-

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ings of the hero are her own longings. Now, to understand is to comprehend; to comprehend is to grasp; to grasp is to embrace—nay, to enfold (pp. 342, 483). Thus the motive of the vision is made clear: she wished to be embraced. But wait. The young woman ponders over the name, "Chiwantopel." She conceives that it may have been suggested by "Popocatepetl," in her view a rather curious word (pp. 208 ff.). Doubly significant! For of course we know that in the mind of every dirty small boy the latter name arouses associations of defecation.

Let us take another example (pp. 304 ff.). In one of her visions the young woman saw a "purple bay." Now, "bay" is connected with *bayer,* to have the mouth open. Another word of the same meaning is "gulf" (French, *gouffre,* abyss), derived from κόλπος, which also means "vagina." These etymologies "render intelligible Goethe's choice of words at that place where Faust wishes to follow the sun with winged desire in order in the everlasting day 'to drink its eternal light':

> The mountain chain with all its gorges deep
> Would then no more impede my godlike motion;
> And now before mine eyes expands the ocean,
> With all its bays, in shining sleep."

Dr. Tannenbaum calls this "science." The writer of "Freudian Fairy Tales," in the *Nation* of July 6, has neatly indicated its scientific character by suggesting that the Baconians must now bow their diminished heads. I would suggest also the more familiar nuisance who, with a wink and a smirk, reads into every chance remark an obscene motive. The game of association is a simple one. Given the proper preconception, associations may be made to work whithersoever you will. Had Dr. Jung so willed, he might easily have employed the same method to derive all myth and poetry from a desire to drink lemonade; or he might have used the etymology of "bay" to show that all love-poetry expresses a desire for seafaring. These, however, were not his particular preconceptions.

(3.) Dr. Tannenbaum suggests that my knowledge of Freud is "gained from the reading of a few translations or of a few popular essays." To this I will reply that the remark reveals, in one who thinks himself qualified to criticise my essay, either an astounding "repression" or a no less astounding unfamiliarity with the writings of Freud—to speak of no other writer. For his satisfaction I will reply to a few of his statements of fact.

(a) Freud's "cipher" of symbolism, vigorously contested both by Dr. Tannenbaum and by Mr. Eliot, may be found on pages 262 ff. of the fourth German edition (Leipzig, Deuticke, 1914) of his "Traumdeutung." In a couple of pages here he names about thirty-five terms and objects commonly found in dreams and gives to each a specific meaning, which is invariably sexual. How far such interpretations are to be treated as individual, Freud makes clear by rejecting a comparison with the variable and more or less private meanings of stenographic signs (p. 260) and by admitting, at most, a comparison with the characters of the Chinese alphabet (p. 262). In a word, the meaning of the dream-symbols varies about as much and about as little with the individual as the meaning of the terms of any other language. Indeed, the racial significance of dream-symbols is attested by the fact that they are also the symbols of folklore (p. 260).

(b) "Freud has never asserted more than that in addition to the ordinary causes for forgetting there is also a forgetting which is the result of repression." If this were true, the Freudian theory of errors would be mere commonplace. But it is not true. The statement is apparently based upon the last sentence of the first essay in the "Psychopathology of Everyday Life" (p. 13 in Brill's translation—I regret that I have only the translation available). One need not read much further to see that this statement is merely preliminary and tentative. On p. 36 Freud tells us that the mechanisms of forgetting, *i. e.,* of repression (not always distinguishable from mechanisms of lying—of the type, "I wanted awfully to come, but I forgot to look at my watch until it was too late"), "are almost of universal validity." On p. 38 he finds "almost regularly" that a forgotten name is connected with a disagreeable association; on p. 95 that mistakes of speech are little influenced by phonetic laws. In the concluding essay he summarizes his investigations in a principle of "psychic determinism" which, if it means anything, means that there can be no unmotived forgetting, *i. e.,* no forgetting which is not repression. Nor can any one who reads the essay doubt that this is his own view. Indeed, it may be said that, in the sentence concluding his discussion of free will, the point is stated explicitly: "What is thus left free from the one side [of conscious motivation] receives its motive from the other side, from the unconscious, and the determinism in the psychic realm is thus carried out uninterruptedly" (p. 303).

(c) Dr. Tannenbaum, like Professor Holt, in "The Freudian Wish," resents the statement that in Freud's view the wish is invariably sexual. Freud, he says, "has always maintained that our wishes are of a twofold nature," etc. By "always" I suppose he means, in the "Three Papers on Sexual Theory." In the "Traumdeutung," by far the most deliberate and extended work of Freud, he will find, not only no trace of the "twofold" theory, but a clear indication of the exclusively sexual theory.

Let me repeat my qualifying sentence: "At any rate it is clear that Freud considers all explanations incomplete until the sexual motive is found." With this qualification retained, I can safely allow the statement to stand. I have already referred to the sexual motive in the "cipher." In the long list of dreams analyzed in the "Traumdeutung" I can recall scarcely one (perhaps the "Irma" dream is one) which is not made sooner or later to yield a sexual or obscene meaning as its central motive; and even in the cases recorded in the "Psychopathology of Everyday Life" it seems that we may expect to unearth a sexual motive whenever the analysis is sufficiently extended. On p. 287 of the "Traumdeutung" (fourth German edition, 1914) Freud tells us that the more one is occupied with the interpretation of dreams, the more readily one sees that the majority of the dreams of adults deal with sexual material and express an erotic motive; and in confirmation he points to a previous demonstration (138 ff.) that there are "no harmless dreams," a demonstration effected by showing that five seemingly innocent dreams were all grossly sexual in motive. Near the close of the volume (pp. 470 ff.) he faces the issue definitely. He holds it to be certain that psychoneurosis is due to sexual disturbances exclusively. He will not commit himself finally in the matter of dreams, because his investigations are not complete. Upon one point, however, he emphatically insists: dreams, though perfectly normal, have essentially the same character as neurosis. Neurosis introduces nothing new; it is only a pathological disturbance of a process already at work in normal life. When we remember that he has already declared that all dreams of fear are of sexual origin (pp. 123, 452 ff.), that in his view the fears expressed in dreams and the anxiety of neurosis are intimately related, and that dreams supply the connecting link between neurosis and normal life in general, it seems that there is little left to say.

WARNER FITE.

Princeton, N. J., August 20.

Literature

RECENT JEWISH PROGRESS IN PALESTINE.

The American Jewish Year-Book, 5676. Edited by Joseph Jacobs. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.

The present volume, besides recording the events of the past year, contains a number of tables and articles, the most important of which is a summary of Jewish enterprise in Palestine, by Miss Henrietta Szold. The essay covers some one hundred and twenty-five pages. It is likely to become, next to Kurt Nawratzki's exhaustive "Die jüdische Kolonisation Palästinas," the most authoritative statement thus far made on the subject in any language. In English it has no peer. Of commentary or analysis it contains little: its matter is a succinct, rather dry, well-ordered record of events, and as such it is an impressive revelation of a unique phenomenon in social history, the phenomenon of the overwhelming influence of the *idea* of a piece of the earth's geography on the life of a people.

For the essay makes explicit how, from Rome's final crushing of the Jewish hopes of national independence to the present time, Palestine has been the defining element in the spiritual idealism of the Jewish people: in ancient days, through the hope of a political restoration by means of political or military endeavor; during the Middle Ages, through the expectation of a mystical religious restoration at the hands of a Messiah; in modern times, first through a not clearly purposive effort at colonization, motivated by an unreasoning Hibbat Zion, or love of Zion; then through the articulated democratic idealism and humanitarian passion of the Zionist Movement.

It is needless to say that the progress in Palestine as an effect chiefly of the last phase is altogether recent. The "old settlement" in Palestine has a spiritual background of mediævalism, and large as it was, it looked to death rather than to life. The newer settlement was, in its pre-Zionistic phase, the effect of the Russian pogroms of 1882. It looked to relief rather than to an affirmative collective life, and the selection of Palestine for this was instinctive. Not, however, on the part of Russian Jews alone; the Jews of Germany, France, Eng-

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land, and America also, in reaction to the Russian horrors, exhibited a spontaneous and practical interest in the Jewish settlement of Palestine. They organized societies of which the Russian, finally crystallized into the "Odessa Committee," was naturally the strongest and most representative. Its first groups of colonists were sent out blindly, on faith. They were without business or agricultural experience, idealists merely, so that after a time it began to seem as if the Committee had only succeeded in adding to the urban "old settlement" of Jews, who had gone to Palestine to die and had remained to breed and live on the alms of the *Halukah*, a new agricultural settlement which had gone there to live and could remain only to die or become pauperized in loyalty to a blind ideal. One colony found itself settled upon a malarial swamp, without knowledge, tools, or means of sustenance. In a short time there were more stones in the graveyard than workmen on the land. Baron Edmond de Rothschild, that great lover of Zion, who had been appealed to for help generally, and had responded with instinctive and unintelligent generosity, offered them other and better land, implements, and cattle. But they would not leave their dead. They conquered their difficulties and became the nucleus of a large and prosperous colony. The interest of Rothschild had not a little to do with this, for the Baron organized a system of maintenance, with indifferent and sometimes antagonistic "administrators," which ultimately made most of the colonists in the early settlements his pensioners.

Not the colonists nor the Odessa Committee, nor the Baron, could endure the *status quo* so established. The last finally transferred all his interests in the Palestinian colonies to the Jewish Colonization Association, which initiated a programme of reorganization and self-help. The success of the programme was made possible by the change in spirit caused by the organization of the Zionist Movement. This introduced a new ideal and new tools. Its aim was the revival and conservation of Hebraism by means of obtaining Palestine as "a publicly assured and legally secured home for the Jewish people." This general programme required a detailed plan of social and economic construction. It required the conversion of the "old settlement" into a self-dependent, modernized community. It required the foundation of the new settlement upon an economic basis that would assure social justice and individual excellence. It involved a programme of housing, municipal organization, banking, and education.

The tools by means of which this programme, not very clearly conceived at first, was to be carried out were the Anglo-Palestine Bank, a creation of the Jewish Colonial Trust, the fiscal organ of the Zionist Movement, and the Jewish National Fund. The former established a credit system which encouraged enterprise and self-help, and which was worked so successfully that it has stood the test of the war. The operations of the latter are particularly significant. Intended to purchase land in Palestine as the inalienable possession of the Jewish people, it found itself compelled by the Turkish law, under which land unworked for three years reverts to the state, to undertake the improvement of its holdings. This required the development of a mechanism of exploitation and control, and the Palästina Amt of the National Fund, under the able direction of Dr. Arthur Ruppin, became, in the realization of this purpose, a sort of ministry of the interior. It served in the organization and regulation of Jewish immigration to Palestine, in the solution of the economic, social, and educational problems. Independence through coöperation has been the slogan of the Zionist administration, as that of the Jewish Colonial Association and others. As a result, the socialization of economic endeavor, through coöperative loan, purchasing, sales, housing, and farming associations, has gone on apace. The National Fund's most striking enterprises have been the experiments in what might be called individualistic socialism at Merchavia and Daganiah. These alone, whether successful or not, are fraught with importance for more than the Jewish groups and for other places than Palestine.

With the economic reorganization came a spontaneous and expressive cultural efflorescence. An item in the change, also helped by the National Fund, was the establishment of the national Arts and Crafts School, Bezalel, under the direction of Boris Schatz, who gave up the directorship of the school at Sofia to do it. Another item was the development of a modern school system, from kindergarten to gymnasium, which but for the war would have been capped by a polytechnique and a university. The medium of instruction, as of the daily life, became Hebrew, and in a veritable rebirth of the tongue there arose a general and special journalistic literature, an indigenous pageantry, a drama, and so on. Mr. Nathan Straus contributed to the foundation and maintenance of an International Health Bureau, others to an agricultural experiment station, directed by M. Aaron Aaronson, the discoverer of wild wheat.

All this is but the promise of achievement. The way Jewish endeavor in Palestine has to go on is a hard one. Problems internal and external are of the most pressing sort, and the record is one of beginnings only. Palestine, says Miss Szold, is a land of possibilities. It opens an avenue of relief for masses of Jews in eastern Europe, utterly expropriated and intimidated by the war. But a Jewish settlement in Palestine may become merely another Ghetto or a healthy centre of spiritual life. To become the latter it needs at least municipal privileges, and an economic order that will render as impossible as may be the exploitation of men and as inevitable as may be the liberation and perfection of individuality. There is an admirable unselfishness in the "assimilated" Jews' interest in Palestine, and an astounding idealism in the Jewish settlers there. The enterprise as a whole is an adventure in humanism that would be significant for mankind even in failure.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Human Boy and the War. By Eden Phillpotts. New York: The Macmillan Co.

David Blaize. By E. F. Benson. New York: George H. Doran Co.

No doubt it is because he is of inexhaustible interest to English story-tellers that the English schoolboy appears to offer inexhaustible material for interpretation. There are few British novelists of importance who have not dealt with him at one time or another. It was in 1899 that Mr. Phillpotts, who had already begun his Dartmoor studies, published "The Human Boy," a book of delightful humor and insight. Nearly a decade later came "The Human Boy Again"; and now we have a third in the series, which is quite as amusing and sympathetic a rendering of boy-nature as its predecessors. The "Merivale" which is our setting is a small school, with a head and five masters, but it has as elaborate an apparatus of upper and lower schools, of forms and removes, as the more reverend foundations of Rugby and Eton. Of the masters, when the war broke out, "two, who were well up in the Terriers, got commissions, and the other enlisted, so we were only left with Brown, who can't see farther than a pink-eyed rat and isn't five-foot-three in his socks, though in his high-heeled boots he may be, and Fortescue." Brown's physical disabilities vindicate his non-combatancy in the eyes of the school, but Fortescue, a ruddy six-footer, who has been a tennis "half-blue" at Oxford, at once falls under suspicion. Having made up its mind that he is a coward, the school proceeds to persecute him with the thoroughgoing ruthlessness of youth. He is presented with white feathers, and knitting materials, and satirical verses. Finally his tormentors paste on his looking-glass a patriotic poem which has stirred all England and "made more recruits in Ireland than Mr. Redmond and Sir Edward Carson together." Whereupon the tormentors are overwhelmed with the news that their victim is author of the poem in question, and that he is not fighting because he "has an aorta." Most of the sketches which make up the volume are less directly connected with the war than this, but it is always in the background as a new and thrilling concomitant of every-day life. Here, in short, is the human boy in wartime, not afraid, not less preoccupied with his games and scrapes, and yet, in his way, not unresponsive to the great struggle going on in that "out-of-bounds," the adult world.

Mr. Phillpotts keeps to the plane of comedy. His incidents are recorded in the first person of various Merivale boys who differ in character but are consciously true to type. It is always *the* schoolboy who is speaking through *a* schoolboy; nobody has more deliciously hit off the ingenuous conventionality of adolescence in the act of

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serious composition. The "David Blaize" of Mr. Benson is a book of graver sort. The publishers announce that it is "as amazingly true as Kipling's 'Stalky & Co.' as fragrant with sweet, wholesome sentiment as 'Tom Brown at Rugby.'" If we do not find in it merits quite so comprehensive as all this, we do find a story of uncommon sincerity and charm. It is a study of boy-friendship, developing, by virtue of David's clean nature, out of a situation of moral peril. Mr. Benson has frankly and yet not offensively touched upon an aspect of school life which is commonly perceived, but for the most part ignored. David has his own faults, of insubordination, of mischief, but these are the expression of outrageous health and spirits, and not of any vice in him. Now and then, for his soul's good, he has to be flogged by the Head in the sound English fashion, and takes his medicine as a matter of course; and so in due time outgrows the need of physical reminders of virtue. His relation with the older boy of his heart, Maddox, is, among all the rude conditions of juvenile society, a true idyl of male love. This, in an atmosphere of tuck-shops, cribbing, cramming, and cricket, is the real theme of the story. Out of it all we come with a refreshed sense of the incorrigible, indomitable, sound-hearted spirit of youth.

The Prisoner. By Alice Brown. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Sound feeling and sound workmanship are never lacking in Miss Brown's work, and her short stories and sketches have always sufficient substance. A poignant situation, a salient episode, a type which strikes the reader both on account of its representative value and for its touch of personality—these are the materials which she treats most happily. In work upon a larger scale, as in her play, "Children of Earth," or in the present novel, we do not feel the same mastery in her. There is much that is affecting and suggestive in this story, but rather as a parable than as a "gripping" (as the press agents say) narrative of experience. We have our still young jail-bird, who has permitted himself to be sentenced in order to shield his guilty wife. We have the wife, a hollow and shallow female egotist. We have the aunt, Madame Beattie, ex-diva and woman of the world. We have a necklace of fabulous value which the wife has stolen from the aunt, and which she still has in her possession. We have a network of rather complicated and unreal motives to explain how this situation has come about, and how it may be imagined as continuing. The innocent husband still loves the guilty wife, but there is no bringing them together; she goes her selfish way, half-conscious of her ignominy at last; and a second and more enduring love relation is foreshadowed for the husband, that she may not leave him mateless. It is significant that while at first glance, as sketches, these persons are distinct and plausible enough, the more we see of them the less we believe in them. For the rest, there is the idea which must be taken as, for better for worse, the reason for the book's existence. This is the idea which has come to the hero in prison—that most people are prisoners of convention, or of the chance tyranny of family, or of things, or of thoughts, and that the only way for us to be free is for us to be honest and to be ourselves, no matter what our surroundings. An excellent and venerable truth, which may well afford a basis for many more novels. But it must give birth to and not manufacture its characters, it must inspire and not galvanize its action.

A SPECIAL STUDY IN ENGLISH HISTORY.

English Field Systems. By Howard L. Gray. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. $2.75 net.

Since 1883, when Frederic Seebohm published his ingenious and epoch-making "English Village Community," no English work has appeared which gives so much valuable information about mediæval agriculture as this study of Professor Gray's. Incidentally it also throws light on enclosures, units of land measure, and the vexed question of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon settlement of England. It is often highly technical, but always lucid and always careful in observing the difference between proven facts and probable hypothesis. The conclusions may be broadly summed up as follows: A thorough examination of charters, extents, terriers, surveys, enclosure awards, tithe-maps, and other material, county by county, shows that Seebohm's treatment was deficient in scope and his generalizations far too sweeping. We cannot accept unreservedly his inferences that a three-field system of agriculture was prevalent in England from the earliest Anglo-Saxon times, and that it came down from the Roman occupation as the protective shell of an originally servile community.

On the contrary, Professor Gray, with the aid of maps and plans, distinguishes with much nicety five regions characterized by five divergent field systems:

(1.) In a broad strip of Midland territory, stretching from Durham in the north to the English Channel on either side of the Isle of Wight in the south, there existed in Anglo-Saxon times mainly a two-field system, *i. e.*, open arable fields which year by year were alternately sown with corn and left fallow. This two-field system tended before the fourteenth century, through advance in agriculture, to change into the three-field system which Seebohm has made so familiar—the system in which two years of corn are followed by one of fallow. Both the two- and three-field systems are, however, essentially identical in principle and are often found co-existent in the same county; in general, the two-field system predominated in the Midlands south of Watling Street and the three-field system in the Midlands north of it. In this Midland region open fields lingered longer than elsewhere in England, and the enclosures were relatively late; particularly in the sixteenth century there were many private piecemeal enclosures, and again in the century following 1760, sweeping enclosures by acts of Parliament. This Midland region probably represents a pure Germanic system of agriculture similar to that of the part of North Germany from which the Saxons came.

(2.) A Celtic field system, probably identical in origin with the pure Celtic system of Scotland and Ireland, but divergent from it in its more progressive development, is clearly discernible in the western counties of England which extend from Northumberland on the Scottish border through Wales to Devon and Cornwall in the southwest. It differed essentially from the Midland system. The open arable lands were smaller, and, though composed of intermixed strips, these strips were not equally apportioned among two or three large arable fields as in the Midlands; the strips of one tenant tended to lie close together, though not contiguously, and owe their origin to the Celtic custom of equal subdivision between co-heirs. This subdivision might proceed with extraordinary rapidity, as in one Irish case where, within two generations, one farm of 205 acres was split into 29 holdings subdivided into 422 strips. Enclosure took place early and easily in this region because the strips were already somewhat compacted.

(3.) In Kent there was still another altogether different field system. Its characteristic feature was the compact rectangular *jugum* or *dola*, a financial unit of land measure of Roman origin. The Germans who occupied Kent probably adopted Roman arrangements in the way that Seebohm wrongly inferred happened all over England. These *juga* were early broken up into irregular strips under the influence of the Kentish practice of equal division among co-heirs, but these strips had in turn largely been reconsolidated into big farms by enclosure, so that Hales in 1549 speaks of Kent as one of the counties "wheare most Inclosures be."

(4.) In East Anglia also the original basis of the agricultural system was the Roman *jugum*, as in Kent, but it took on a different development through the imposition of petty manors following the Danish invasions, and later by the practice of folding sheep on small separate plots instead of on common lands.

(5.) Finally, in the lower Thames basin, in the four counties of Surrey, Middlesex, Hertford, and Essex, where the Midland, Kentish, and East Anglian systems intersect, there grew up a fifth hybrid system different from that of each of the neighboring regions, and yet partaking of some of the characteristics of each.

Thus, from a study of field systems Professor Gray is able to mark off the regions of England in which Germanic, Celtic, Roman, and Danish influences prevailed or

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were fused. This is a valuable bit of evidence which may be fitted in with the researches of others in philology, archæology, and law. It is a pity that such further comparative studies should not have been facilitated by a more adequate index.

LETTERS FROM PANAMA.

A Woman in the Wilderness. By Winifred James. New York: George H. Doran Co. $2 net.

If the common charge that letter-writing is a lost art needed to be taken seriously, a defendant might confront the plaintiff with "Letters to My Son" and "Letters of a Spinster," and the present group of letters by the same writer. Miss James (now Mrs. De Jan) writes, it may be said, for a public; but what accomplished letter-writer has not? What is the charm of Walpole's letters, for example, if not in their knack of addressing the world by way of one person? What does it matter if our correspondent nominally chats with Horace Mann or George Montagu about the politics of the hour, or the scandal of the moment? Isn't the thing we delight in the fact that he is really discoursing to humanity of its perennial affairs? And if the writer chooses an imaginary auditor, as Miss James did in "Letters to My Son," the essential merit or demerit of her letter-writing is not modified thereby. A good letter, in short, is an intimate essay upon the current text of every-day life.

Miss James was born in Australia, became a writing woman, spent ten years in England, and in 1913 married an American whose business and dwelling-place were in Panama. Whether or not the present letters were actually sent to the English "Phillipa" of their attribution, they have clearly a documentary as well as literary character. In fact, if one attaches anything self-conscious or bookish to the term literary, one cannot apply it here. The writer's style is colloquial in the best sense, the natural accent of a distinct and engaging personality. Anything appears to serve for a theme, but (as with Walpole or any other) a process of natural selection is really going on; and, indeed, all themes and items are of value as they serve our intimacy with the writer herself. In the end we feel that we know her very well, indeed, and that we ought to be grateful for the knowledge. Here is a personality of uncommon charm, a woman of exceptional cleverness, with a humor too keen and rich to degenerate into that mere "brightness," that pert feminine facetiousness, which is the curse of most books of this sort. And she has a possession as rare as humor—a good-humor by virtue of which alone the conditions of her life in Panama can have become anything better than matter for grim endurance. The heat, the humidity, the sand-flies, the scarcity of provisions and of servants and of decent society—the struggle with loneliness and with nostalgia—all these are grist to the mill of her indomitable good-will and good-humor. As an example of her more insouciant vein, a description of a new dog unexpectedly brought home by her husband may serve:

> I've never seen a dog like it before. It reminds you of everything but a dog. It has enormous ears like leaves, that it whisks and flaps every time a thought passes through its head; and it is thinking all the time. Its body is long and tubular and raised from the ground by legs very little longer than a lizard's. There is a legend here that once upon a time a dachshund inhabited these parts. Looking at Ginger, one is sure of it. It has the hair of a fox terrier with liver-colored spots and a strange upstanding tuft perhaps one-sixth of an inch in length in that place where an ordinary dog keeps its tail. One minute she sets you thinking of a new art paper-weight made in Germany, and another of those sand sausages they have in cottages to keep the draught out. And somehow oddly all the time she reminds me of dressmakers who live a long way out in Camden town or somewhere like that where you have to go for days in 'buses, and run them to earth in a small room with a very large wall paper, a Brussels carpet, a round table in the middle, and enlargements of their parents' photographs over the sofa. Very virtuous, with nothing more incriminating in the matter of male connections than a promising nephew in the Territorials, whose cabinet portrait in an antimony frame stands upon the art-serge cover of the chiffonier under the vase of honesty and pampas. There is also another of a niece standing upon a rustic bridge with a violin in her hand, which is framed in shells from Southend and is placed on the mantelpiece on the right of the wooden clock that has a glass door painted with flowers and shows the pendulum swinging behind.

But there are more serious moods, passages of searching, though never uncharitable, comment upon the world and its ways. There is the big world of Europe at its astounding game of self-destruction: "the horror of things that have been, the horror of things that still have to be; the shames, the miseries, the torments; the devils of lust and fury that are trampling a universe to death and destruction; there surely can't be any worse hell than is loosened now." And there is the little world of the Panama encampment, with its limitations and its own sort of mental and moral squalor to face. None of the determined attempts at social pleasure and recreation are there that would be found in an English settlement of the sort—not even a tennis court beaten out of the mud or the coral, as the English exile would have beaten it. As for the American man, the spectator does not mince words in giving her impressions. Apropos of the effect of the war, for example: "In our midst stores are closing, houses are empty, men are going away, and how to keep things together is the urge of the moment. And though the American can hold on, he can't hold on gayly for this reason. If anything goes wrong with his business, the bottom is out of his universe. He has not taught himself the value of play, and so he has nothing to lay off on, nothing to relieve the pressure of his brain or stiffen up his courage for the next day. He shuts the door upon his affairs in time to bring an over-wrought nervous system to the eating of his food; he goes badly nourished to bed, with his brain seething, and gets up with no thought in his mind but to hurry back to the trouble as quickly as possible. If things are good, the effect is just as bad in another way. He loses all care, all appetite, all enjoyment for any but one pleasure, and if you take his drug away from him for ever so short a time, he ceases for that time to exist, or, at any rate, he exists so unhappily that it seems better to let him have his drug back and be happy again. It is going to make some more very rich men, but it isn't going to make a nation."

Here also is a grim little passage which throws a familiar light upon the American in exile:

> The American man of this world does not think for his womankind very much. And whether as a result of this, or because she in herself isn't interested in anything, I don't know, but there is little spirit of fraternity among the women here. As for the unmarried men, they, a few of them, play bridge or poker occasionally, but their chief pleasure seems to lie in drinking round the bars of the town and exalting, for periods short or long, the colored ladies above their wash-tubs. We keep open house, and certainly there is nothing very rigid about our forms of enjoyment. To read, to discuss what is going on, comes as a matter of course, but that is not all. A gramophone with rag-time for dancing, roulette, and ping-pong are not high above the tastes of the ordinary person. Yet I always feel that any pleasure we could offer would have no chance against the superior attractions of Solomon Wing's back room and the shanty over the way that calls itself the Little Wonder Bar.

Notes from the Capital

OSCAR W. UNDERWOOD.

"Tom" Reed's drawling description of the Senate as "the place where good politicians go when they die" has recurred to the minds of many Washingtonians in connection with the fortunes of Oscar W. Underwood, of Alabama. In the House Underwood was a big man. He had scope there for his talents as an economist, an orator, and a composer of controversies. He had his recognized place in the scheme of things, and an admiring group of followers. During the last part of his service, he was the chief spokesman for his party and for the Administration. As a Representative, moreover, no settled tradition blocked his path to the White House, whither his ambition had turned its eyes. Translated to the other end of the Capitol, he found all these conditions changed. He became a single unit in an organism composed of ninety-six. He was a "new man," and therefore at a discount for the present. Half the rules of discipline to which he was subject were unwritten, but not the less restrictive of individual freedom, and until his dark hair has mostly changed to white he can hardly hope to have

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any hand in modifying them. Here was a body in which leadership was not to be won by a contest of logic, or wit, or resourcefulness on the floor, but by seniority of service or by some accident's emptying the places above him. The existing Administration had its spokesman already installed. And to cap the heap of discouraging elements, history reminded him that for more than a half-century only one man had been elected to the Presidency after sitting in the Senate, and he only by a chapter of coincidences.

In view of all this, Underwood's recent exhibition of independence in refusing to bow to caucus dictation is hardly to be wondered at, especially when the hand that cracked the whip over his head was Stone, of Missouri, whom he could not regard as in any respect his equal. How far he will continue his contumacy is still doubtful, for Stone, whose authority on a large public question would be negligible but for the fact that he is the President's mouthpiece, will probably be well suported by the contingent who hope to use his favor as a makeweight in their negotiations with the dispenser of good things at the other end of the Avenue. Should the President be reëlected in November, Underwood will find the road of independence harder than ever to travel, though under the latest amendment to the Constitution he can go back to his State at the end of his term and appeal directly to his people, trusting to their good will and their pride in his past accomplishments to return him for another six years. On the whole, the outlook is not especially cheerful for him, and may be tinged with a trifle of bitterness when he reflects that it was upon him that both President and party leaned when a new revenue law, embodying the principles set forth in the tariff plank of the Democratic platform adopted at Baltimore, had to be framed and steered through the house of its origin.

Some of his oldest and best friends assert that Underwood will yet make his way to the top in the Senate as he did in the House, and without any sacrifices of what he holds important. They insist that his usually quiet and untheatrical way of going about his business, whatever it may be, is far more effective in the long run than the boisterous or domineering methods of some of his adversaries. He is a great worker, but his machinery makes little noise; in past times he has frequently finished his job while his competitors were still getting started on theirs. So well was his efficiency recognized in the House that, when he was about to move out, both sides of the chamber united in a demonstration of respect and liking that would have touched the heart of a much more stolid man. Still, this is a radical era, and Underwood is a conservative. He has some very definite ideas on the chief issues of the day, and he sticks to them even when most of his associates are disposed to yield theirs to the pressure of the general current. His theory is that, if you are right, you can afford to be patient and wait for the opposition to wear itself out.

To look at him, you would not take him for a leader. He has height and size enough, and, in its way, presence enough, but when he is at rest these do not impress you at a first view. His hair is so uncompromisingly well parted and brushed, and holds so uniformly to its place from day to day, that at first you suspect him of wearing a wig. His eyes, intelligent and pleasant of expression, lack the searching quality we commonly expect in those of a man who is hewing his way through obstructions. It is only when we see him in full action that we realize who and what he is. Calm, clear reasoning, devoid of any spectacular tricks, characterizes the part he takes in debate; and when he has finished speaking, though you may still disagree with his conclusions, you are bound to admit that he has made the best that can be made of his case.

By the way, does any one, except himself, know what Underwood's middle initial stands for?

TATTLER.

Drama

"THE GUILTY MAN."

The first pretentious play of the early season discourages the hope of novelty or of a return to wholesome lines in the drama of the year. Again the cruder relations of sex are uppermost, and again there is an elaborate trial scene. The only alteration from similar pieces is the setting, which is laid in Paris. The New York chief of police and his various deputies, together with prosecution and defence, became stage properties with the advent of "The Third Degree," nearly a decade ago. And to avoid monotony the scene of the action has now been shifted to Paris, whose criminal procedure affords a more varied spectacle. The audience takes especial note of the scarlet robes of judges and prosecutor. The play need not be dismissed too lightly. It is as good as several of its kind, but we submit that a change of air is not enough to distinguish this work from its predecessors on the American stage.

The central situation is of itself poignant enough for the author of "La Dame aux Camélias." Claude Lescuyer, a promising student of law, is on the point of leaving his mistress in order to be married, of which event he has told the hapless Marie nothing. But shortly enters his father to rebuke him for lingering so long, and the upshot is that, although his mistress is to become a mother, he deserts her, through the urging of his father, promising, of course, to compensate her financially. Eighteen years elapse, and we are treated to the spectacle of the exhausted mother, who has married a restaurant keeper in order to give respectability to her future child. The child is now a dancer in the café, who despises the life and hates her stepfather because of the way in which he exploits her. When he attempts to make her marry the debauched Michaud and beats her mother, on objecting to the union, she shoots him. In the ensuing trial Claude Lescuyer, who does not know that Claudine is his daughter, and who has just been elected Senator, is the prosecutor. It is unnecessary to pursue the plot further. The reader will have divined the climax, which comes when Claude, learning the inwardness of the situation, renounces his career and effects the acquittal of the prisoner, even going so far at the trial as to admit his own guilt and to champion the proposition that in such cases the man is equally guilty with the woman. Whether this is, indeed, the theme of the play, or the earlier theme evolved from the scene in which Marie upbraids the doctor for not sparing her the disgrace of childbirth, is not kept quite clear by the authors, Ruth Davis and Charles Klein. This is one of the dangers which are encountered by plays of propagandic tendencies. Arguments must be brief to avoid tedium and to prevent the dramatic action from slowing down; and yet reasoning which is phrased almost formally, as in the present play, appears juvenile if it is not convincing. To appeal cogently to the mind, while at the same time moving the emotions, furnishes a dramatic problem too large for most writers.

The main parts are well filled. Miss Irene Fenwick makes a pathetic little figure as Claudine; the Claude of Lowell Sherman is acted impressively, and in the first act Emily Wellman as Marie meets the exactions of an emotional scene competently if not with distinction.

F.

"SOMEBODY'S LUGGAGE."

There is a long list of characters in Mark E. Swan's farce at the Forty-eighth Street Theatre, and James T. Powers, with something of the memory of "San Toy" clinging to him, supports them all. He also supports the scenery, the text, and the action, and so offers an hour and a half of good fun, if you have only been lucky enough to escape all of the first act up to where Mr. Powers, a love-lorn and intoxicated cockney on a Channel boat, tries to fold a steamer chair. From that moment the laughs are hearty and frequent, except when the hero is off the stage, which is for a very few moments. Naturally, a farce couldn't be produced on Broadway without a blackmailing butler, who used to be a prize-fighter, and a couple of policemen. But it is not hard to forget them and concentrate on Mr. Powers as he comes downstairs perhaps a dozen times in the course of the evening in various articles of apparel twice too large for him. Now and then there is a line which sounds as if the author might have written it. Otherwise it is all James T. Powers.

S. S.

"THE GIRL FROM BRAZIL."

Outside of the title, South America plays a very small part in the piece now running at the Forty-fourth Street Theatre, but that does not affect the interest of the offering one way or the other. Musical-comedy audiences are patient, and as there are frequent references to Brazil in the first two acts, one holds one's curiosity in until the third act, when one is transported to what is to be accepted as a scene in that country. In the meantime, there is continual singing or dancing, broken by patches of dialogue, in which the form of a plot is carefully preserved, but not permitted to interfere with the enjoyment of the more serious elements of the entertainment. Mr. George Hassell carries off the larger part of the honors as amusement maker. He has the rôle of long-suffering creditor, but does not allow himself to be confined to any single line of action. Upon occasion, he is the embarrassed admirer of female charms, and no less happily a member of a diverting male chorus. Miss Beth Lydy sang pleasingly, and Miss Frances Demarest had a rollicking air, which she rendered with suitable spirit. There was an agreeable absence of "suggestive" lines, and the chorus was content to manœuvre gracefully instead of trying to be shocking. A few dull episodes might profitably have been omitted, along with a small assortment of jokes which were below the level of the rest. For its kind, the piece is a successful compound. It was made by Mr. Edgar Smith from "The Beautiful Swede," by Julius Brammer

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and Alfred Grunwald. The music is credited to Robert Winterberg and Sigmund Romberg. R. J. D.

"A LITTLE BIT OF FLUFF."

Doubtless London's plays of war time are to be regarded with an indulgent eye. Theatres presumably are filled with officers and men enjoying brief respite from arduous toil in the trenches, and what they demand and have a right to get is something light and amusing—as light as the little bit of fluff which has now come to the Thirty-ninth Street Theatre after a long and successful run in London. On these grounds we may account for a large part of its popularity on the other side. As a farce of the old-fashioned kind, replete with wildly impossible situations and not disdaining the sorely labored jest, it is by no means without merit and it evokes spontaneous laughter. It may be doubted, however, whether the laughter will survive the occasion long enough to be retailed to others and so assist the piece to a successful run. One passes an evening pleasantly enough following the difficulties of John Ayers in recovering from his suspicious wife a pearl necklace entrusted to his keeping by the "little bit of fluff," but it is doubtful if one would go to any particular trouble for the privilege of so passing an evening. As a desperate expedient for obtaining, if not the necklace, then its equivalent of £500 in money, Ayers attempts to mulct a bus company in damages for purely fictitious injuries. Here it is that Charles Garry as Bertram Tully, Ayers's friend and the blameless conductor of a mission, comes to the rescue both of his friend and of the play. Mr. Garry's performance as the pious and mild-mannered missioner forced into a series of ridiculous situations and a succession of *suppressiones veri* and *suggestiones falsi* is quite delightful. Arthur Chesney is amusing as Ayers, and he and Mr. Garry play up well the one to the other. Miss Margot Kelly is an attractive "bit of fluff," for whose sake Tully's lapse from the decorum that befits a missioner might well be forgiven, and Miss Netta Westcott does all that is necessary as Pamela Ayers. A nice little character study is provided by Mrs. Alice Chapin as Aunt Hannah. S. W.

The Washington Square Players opened their season last week at the Comedy Theatre by a revival of their most successful one-act comedies. These are "Literature," by Arthur Schnitzler; "Eugenically Speaking," a satire by Edward Goodman; Maeterlinck's "A Miracle of Saint Anthony," and "A Bear," one of Anton Tchekhov's rollicking farces. It is perhaps unnecessary to remind our readers at this day that the Washington Square Players are performing a service in giving the American public a taste of the sort of intellectual European drama which otherwise would hardly be presented here.

"Sybil," one of the better types of musical comedy, was so successful last year that it is continued, at the Empire Theatre, for a four weeks' engagement during the present season. The work quite deserves the popularity which it has gained. The cast is the same as was seen last season, the three principals being Miss Julia Sanderson, as charming as ever; Donald Brian, who dances and sings, and Joseph Cawthorn, whose abilities as a comedian are considerably above the average.

Art

AN ACADEMIC REVOLUTION.

LONDON, August 10.

It is not often within my experience that the Royal Academy has invited praise for its enterprise. The announcement of an event which means a complete change of policy on its part is therefore to be noted, especially as it should serve as a reproach to us in America for the casual way in which we neglect our opportunities. I have already pointed out a few minor innovations recently made by the Academy, but these are as nothing compared to its decision to hold an exhibition of arts and crafts in its galleries during the coming autumn. The Academy, so long as I have known anything of it, has given a show of contemporary, preferably Academic, art in the spring and a show of old masters or a deceased member in the winter, and for the rest of the year rested comfortably with a sense of duty done—the one notable exception having been its show a winter ago for the benefit of Belgian war charities. Again and again its critics have argued that, according to the conditions under which Academicians are royally sheltered in Burlington House, this building, when not required by the Academy, should be at the service of other societies of artists for other exhibitions, and used as liberally as the Grand Palais in Paris. The Academy has always been indifferent to criticism, has always held tenaciously to every privilege grabbed in the course of the century and more of its existence. This official recognition of the arts and crafts, hitherto officially ignored, under these circumstances seems little less than a revolution.

It must be said for the Academy that, having once taken so revolutionary a step, it rises boldly above compromises. The exhibition and its arrangement have been handed over entirely to the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society, to whom the galleries at Burlington House are lent for the occasion. Indeed, in some quarters this is considered an excess of generosity for which the Academy is already criticised, the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society, though so much younger in years, being, it is said, hardly less conservative in policy and narrow in standard, and quite as unwilling as the Academy to recognize the existence of art beyond the limits it has set. The fear is that the exhibition will include only the one group approved by the Society. However, in the weeks between now and the opening of the exhibition the members have time to learn the advantage of greater liberality and breadth. In any case, we are promised a large and representative collection of the decorative arts in England, if not of the decorative artists. There will be the usual displays of metal-work and textiles, glass and pottery, designs and drawings; a series of interiors are to be constructed and fitted up as rooms and chapels; practical examples are to be made of the decorative possibilities of a council chamber and an ordinary classroom; even a model is to be prepared of the new Trafalgar Square, which some architects and artists, to the alarm and despair of the more intelligent, itch to create out of the old Trafalgar Square, when, if ever, the elaborate plans for pulling down and rebuilding Charing Cross Station and bridge are carried out.

Altogether there will be every effort possible to arrange an exhibition that will convince the Academy of its mistake in so long considering the Arts and Crafts beneath its notice. And not only this. The idea is to send the exhibition on tour after it closes in Burlington House—to the different large towns in the United Kingdom, to the Colonies, to America North and South, perhaps to France, to Russia. It is just in this respect that the scheme is, or should be, of such serious interest to all artists and societies of artists in America. Here is England, in the midst of an abominable war that might be supposed to absorb all her energies, giving her artists a chance to exhibit their work under the most advantageous conditions, not only at home, but abroad. It would have surprised nobody had the Academy put off its enterprise, its quite unexpected awakening, until later on. Already one show sent abroad when the outlook was peaceful—sent not by the Academy, but by the Board of Trade—is locked up in Leipzig until the end of the war; another is locked up in the cellars of the Louvre; and the moment might not seem the most favorable to be arranging to dispatch another anywhere to risk the same fate. But beneath all the loud talk of capturing German art as well as trade, the English no doubt are conscious of how much their listlessness in the past has had to do with the Germans' capture from them of the art and trade they now seek to recover, and artists, even Academicians, realize that if they mean to rouse themselves they cannot begin too soon, especially where the industrial arts are concerned.

In matters of this kind we in America have never roused ourselves at all; in our period of peace we have not, we never have had, the enterprise to which the English are stirred in their period of war. Neither the American artists nor the United States Government have ever endeavored to get together a fine exhibition to send to other countries, that the world may learn what American artists can do and what American art has achieved. To the big international expositions, when invited, American artists have contributed. But it was left to a millionaire—a patron of art—to originate the idea of organizing an American exhibition for Europe—for Germany—and to be energetic enough to take it there and have it opened with ceremony and distinction, though unfortunately it was far from representative either of American art or American artists. A second, which he or-

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ganized and sent to London, concluded abruptly with the war. No department in Washington, apparently, has the machinery for the undertaking of such an exhibition; if the National Academy has, no use is made of it. And yet, American art can as little afford to fall out of the world competition as English art: a competition in which only good work can hold its own or capture supremacy from anybody. Good work, however, can accomplish nothing if nobody knows it exists. Good work is done in America, but so little of it is seen abroad that it is small wonder if English artists of no importance believe America to be without artists of its own and are making war-time an excuse to try to dump on America the work they cannot dispose of at home. And so it will be until Americans take the matter into their own care, think less of the millionaire patron, and learn to manage their own affairs—and the Government into the bargain.

In the affairs of art, as of politics, the secret of success is organization. In England there is the organization, though whether the right use is always made of it is another question. The department of the Board of Trade in charge of exhibitions has done some good work; it looks as if the Royal Academy were at last turning over a new leaf in earnest. The machinery is there. Of how little can be done without the machinery England also furnishes the proof in the career of the various new societies that crop up from time to time with tremendous ambition and small means. An example is to be had at the present moment in the new Civic Arts Association formed with the object of bringing beauty into towns and villages and advising public bodies and private persons how this is to be done. Haphazard has achieved more in the way of beauty for the modern English town than the most self-conscious town-planner, and the first exhibition of the new Association does not go far to inspire confidence in the new effort. It has got together a collection of designs and models for war monuments and memorials in anticipation of commissions after the war, and there has been enough interest in the scheme for prizes to be offered by individuals and firms, for the exhibition to be opened formally with speech-making by Mr. Aelline C. Benson, and for much notice to be bestowed upon the whole enterprise. But the collection rather suggests the work of a Young Ladies' Art School, and if the designs and models are a foretaste of what is to come, then the second state of St. Paul's and Westminster Abbey and the streets of London will be sadder than the first. Unfortunately, this sort of well-meant, but often ephemeral, movement is more apt to have imitators in America than the careful, business-like ventures of official bodies. Therefore, it is to be hoped that the coming Arts and Crafts exhibition may in the course of time reach the United States and serve as a valuable object-lesson and a powerful incentive.

N. N.

Finance

AT THE END OF SUMMER.

As a rule, the two periods of the year which financial markets await with some expectation of learning how events are really drifting are the late spring and the early autumn. There was a distinct turn in the general situation, for instance, last May, when the financial despondency of the four preceding months suddenly disappeared; when a gold import movement larger than last year's set in; when the bank surplus, after a slight further decline, rose $70,000,000 in three months, and when the steel trade was suddenly subjected to a greater pressure of orders than at any previous time of the year. The year's low prices on the Stock Exchange were made very generally around the end of April; they are much higher now.

The beginning of autumn is likely to be a period of even more interesting changes than the beginning of spring, because by common consent summer ends and autumn begins, for the business community, on the morning after Labor Day. Every autumn, however, brings particular tests of its own to the situation. When there is to be tight money, the evidence of it comes in sight at the opening of September. Resumption of business activities very quickly shows whether the season is to be a good one or a bad one in general trade. The real influence, a good or bad harvest, will seldom make itself felt until then, but its results become visible rather quickly.

As this autumn test approaches on the present occasion, the ordinary routine influences are extremely favorable. The total amount of checks drawn on banks in the United States—a well-known test of trade activity—ran beyond all precedent of the period last month, exceeding by nearly 30 per cent. even the record-breaking August figures of 1915. The monthly surplus of exports of merchandise has reached unprecedented figures; railway gross and net earnings, taken as a whole, have far surpassed all previous midsummer figures. With the rapid increase of bank reserves and of the surplus over legal requirements, all immediate prospect of higher money rates has apparently disappeared. Except in the event of such an occurrence as serious labor troubles, like the threatened railway strike, there is no visible reason for a change in any of these directions. The Stock Exchange itself, notwithstanding the adverse bearing of the railway dispute, has evidently been disposed, during the last few weeks, to "discount" continuance of the favorable conditions.

The last four months of any year are rather likely to produce surprises in the field of finance. This year there are already clearly in sight three influences, of the first importance to the general situation, whose effect on the financial market (if they are to have any effect) is yet a matter of entire doubt. Whatever else happens in the coming season, we shall have the problem of our diminished crops, the vicissitudes of the war, and the Presidential election.

The question of crops has some curious aspects. In the coming season, we shall certainly not hold the position which we occupied in the autumn of 1914, of having raised a record-breaking wheat crop when the rest of the world was faced with shortage. We shall not occupy the position of the past season, when the outside world had raised good harvests while our own country had increased its yield over even 1914. Our wheat crop will be the smallest in nearly half a dozen years. Yet one curious fact of the matter seems to be that the outside world, taken as a whole, is also short of the full normal crop; that the surplus left unsold from our own thousand-million-bushel yield of 1915 will at least very largely compensate for the deficiency of 1916, and meantime, that the producer is at any rate getting much better prices than a year ago.

No one can predict confidently what effect even news of the highest importance regarding the European war will have on the financial situation. There are always two diametrically opposite lines of reasoning: either return of peace and whatever foreshadows it will bring an outburst of financial relief and confidence (as the ending of all former wars has done), or else the near prospect of the great economic readjustment, concerning which every kind of nightmare has at times possessed the financial mind, will cause apprehension throughout our market. Very possibly, we shall not know which is to be the governing influence until we are actually confronted with the occasion.

The Presidential campaign really begins this week; the month or two before September is always a period of mere skirmishes. Thus far, despite all the political banging of cymbals, the Presidential contest has had as little influence on financial sentiment, one way or the other, as it had in 1912—and it had no influence at all that year. Nor is this because Wall Street and the community at large have made up their minds as to the outcome at the polls. They had undoubtedly done so at this precise time of year in 1904, 1908, and 1912, and the "Wall Street betting odds" of the last fortnight of August correctly foreshadowed the result. But the curious thing about this electoral season is, that whereas very definite odds were placed in Wall Street on one of the two candidates just after the nominations, there have been no "betting odds" whatever in the past week. Practically nothing is being wagered in Wall Street; the common report being equivalent to "even money with no takers."

All this may change when the campaign gets under way. The financial community may receive new impressions of the political situation, such as will really influence the market. The European war and the results of the crops may similarly exert new influence. These are among the possible developments from the test of autumn. Quite as probably, in the light of previous experience, the actual governing influence may turn out to be

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something wholly new and entirely unexpected.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

Sypherd, W. O. A Bibliography on English for Engineers. Scott, Foresman. 25 cents net.
The Soldier's Catechism. Compiled by Major F. C. Bolles and Captains E. C. Jones and J. S. Upham. Doubleday, Page. $1 net.
Thieme, H. P. Essai sur L'Histoire du Vers Français. Paris: Librairie Ancienne Honore Champion.
Thomson, W. Laws of Speech-Rhythm. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons. 1s. net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Bamburgh, W. C. Talks on Business Correspondence. Little, Brown. $1 net.
Brooks, E. C. Woodrow Wilson as President. Chicago: Row, Peterson & Co.
Davis, G. B. The Elements of International Law. 4th edition, revised by G. E. Sherman. Harper. $3 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Hobhouse, L. T. Questions of War and Peace. T. Fisher Unwin. 3s. 6d. net.
Martin, C. Lord Selkirk's Work in Canada. Vol. 7—Oxford Historical and Literary Studies. Oxford University Press. 8s. 6d. net.

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McCarthy, D. A. Heart Songs and Home Songs. Little, Brown. $1 net.

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The Nation

Vol. CIII NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 7, 1916 No. 2671

Education and The Melting-Pot

By LOUIS TRENCHARD MORE,
Dean of Graduate School, University of Cincinnati.

In 1876, at the formal and significant opening of Johns Hopkins University, Huxley was invited to deliver an address; to give us the benefit of his experience and wisdom in this our first organized venture into the fields of higher learning. The burden of his plea was that "university education should not be something distinct from elementary education, but should be the natural outgrowth and development of the latter." But, as he thought that in a new country relatively few could afford to continue through the long period from the primary grades to the graduate school, we should be especially solicitous to have a strong and adequate system of elementary education covering, as well as might be, "all the kinds of real knowledge and mental activity possible to man"; complete in itself and, at the same time, preparing the few for a college and university training.

As an explicit aid to us, he gave this outline of his ideas: "I have a very clear conviction as to what elementary education ought to be; what it really may be, when properly organized; and what I think it will be, before many years have passed over our heads, in England and America. Such education should enable an average boy of fifteen or sixteen to read and write his own language with ease and accuracy, and with a sense of literary excellence derived from the study of our classical writers: to have a general acquaintance with the history of his own country and with the great laws of social existence; to have acquired the rudiments of the physical and psychological sciences, and a fair knowledge of elementary arithmetic and geometry. He should have obtained an acquaintance with logic rather by example than by precept; while the acquirement of the elements of music and drawing should have been pleasure rather than work."

This is a lucid statement of what Huxley believed to be a liberal education in contrast with the narrow curriculum then dominant in English public schools and universities, of Greek, Latin, a little English, and less mathematics, which he had spent a lifetime in combating; a curriculum, by the way, never oppressively popular in this country.

Now, if Huxley could have returned to this country, forty years later, to see the effect of his former words and to make another address at the recent occasion of the inauguration of a new president of Johns Hopkins University, he would have found his arguments for a *liberal* education, aided by the passing conditions of life, had been more than realized.

During that time Greek, Latin, English, and mathematics have been effectively smothered in our public schools by a variety of liberal subjects which are quite generally accepted by discriminating pupils as having been devised for pleasure rather than for work. Still, old-fashioned college teachers, who receive this product of a new education, are not so certain that the rest of Huxley's prediction has been fulfilled. Occasionally, a boy is found who does not, at fifteen or sixteen, write English with ease and accuracy, whose acquaintance with our classical writers and with history is not general; but if such boys are not strong in the physical sciences, still it is true that the conviction has been impressed upon them that they themselves have been interesting examples of psychology and sex-hygiene.

This last half century, then, has changed its ideas and enriched its art of education; and few changes have produced a greater deluge of words and a greater confusion of ideas than has the new pedagogy. An army of people has arisen, professional or, as they elect to be called, scientific educators. They have their general staffs in teachers' colleges, and they marshal a vast number of subordinate teachers in a complicated system, whose discipline is more rigorous than that of soldiers; these, in turn, manipulate pupils by imposed rules as though they were parts of an impersonal machine; while the officers higher up keep a system of records from which are deduced the scientific results of various kinds of combinations and experiments. Against this organized army, although it is unknown whether a majority of the teachers are willing or coerced officers, is a disorganized body of critics and parents who range in feelings from passive antipathy to bitter hostility.

To a person a little outside the discussion, the impression is given that this system of education results from a carefully planned and exactly worked out scientific and experimental problem; that the attacks on it are like those which have frequently opposed the discoveries of other sciences. Thus the antagonists of the system appear to be opponents of orderly and progressive knowledge and to be actuated by a desire to return to rule-of-thumb practice; to a simpler but nevertheless haphazard method of teaching which aimed vaguely to train the minds and develop the character of children. But if one has come into a rather close relationship with our modern educators, talked familiarly with them when divested of their official and defensive armor, one will be convinced that education as a science has no body of experimental facts, no set of general laws, and no apparatus for exact measurement such as is imperative in any of the other sciences. One will certainly find such a criticism to be just, no matter whether one advocates the old or the new methods. Our educators, despite their scientific pretensions, are really opportunists seeking to solve a hard problem by tentative methods; to organize a bewildering number of teachers, who too often have no aptitude for their profession, and to introduce a great array of studies which are so new and inchoate as to have no background of educational discipline; to reconcile internal dissension and external pressure by concessions now to the one side and now to the other. Instead of boldly directing education to the best of their ability, they have allowed themselves to be caught in confused counter-currents much the same in character as those which are embarrassing all other forms of government. The fact of the matter is that the problem of popular education has entirely changed, and educators do not see how to solve it any more than legislators see how to adopt a consistent and adequate form of civil polity.

Fifty years ago, the children in our public schools were a fairly homogeneous body of American, British, Irish, and German parentage who, when they grew older, fell naturally into our scheme of government. Patriotism was not preached to them very insistently, as it was assumed that all in the country recognized the advantages of being its citizens and had left their native lands because of dissatisfaction. The English language was so dominant that a child who could and did speak a foreign language at home concealed the fact from his fellows as a mark of inferiority. Industrialism was just beginning, labor was plentiful and not organized in class unions. Each man worked when and how he desired, took his children out of school when he wished, and apprenticed them at any age. Thus, the idea that the public schools were a place where trades were to be learned and where manufacturers and contractors were to look for trained workers was undreamed of. The physical and moral character of the pupils was not an explicit concern of the state or of the teacher, as that was left to parents and the clergy, who were innocently supposed to care for the health, vigor, and character of children.

Most children, even of the well-to-do, went to these schools, where they met intimately a self-respecting and democratic class of companions; good, bad, and indifferent teachers taught as they wished, and tried to keep the children going in their studies and quiet in their behavior. There responsibility ended. Schoolhouses were ugly

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and unsanitary places to be shunned, and not at all attractive centres of neighborhood interests. The curriculum, in the primary grades, consisted of English and its branches, arithmetic, geography, history, singing, drawing, and German for some; about half the day was set aside for individual study. The high schools offered English, mathematics, ethics, history, physical geography, a little physics and chemistry, Latin, and a choice of Greek, French, or German. The stupid—there was no recognized class of defectives—and the needy dropped out all along the line. A fairly large number finished the high school and went to work, and a smaller number passed on to college.

Evidently, education in those days was rather crude both in method and in physical equipment; but it was definite and its aims were understood. A judicious reform could have been achieved if school authorities and teachers had sternly and steadfastly fulfilled their duty to direct education, and had not weakly been swayed by the half-baked schemes of educational enthusiasts and by the ill-advised desires of the public. The result has been, not consistent growth and improvement, but an orgy of pedagogical experiments and methods, and a benumbing system of government.

Of the many causes contributing to our changed system of education, two stand out prominently. The first is the necessity of teaching a horde of foreign immigrants of many and heterogeneous nationalities, traditions, and tongues. We can no longer leave their induction into American ideals and customs to their parents, who are quite ignorant of them, nor to the state, for it has no facilities for the task; so the disheartening burden has fallen on the public-school teachers. Thus their first aim has become that of making Americans, of teaching rudimentary English to those whose lives are spent in isolated foreign settlements. Before their minds can be developed, these children must be taught the simplest principles of hygiene, cleanliness, morality, and self-government. For this reason we witness the rather humiliating spectacle of tooth-brush demonstrations and oaths of allegiance, and schoolhouses as the centres of clinics and professional nurses. In the effort to overcome these deficiencies of future citizens, it is too certain that children of better ability and of native parentage are neglected. Thus standards of education will not improve, and may even decline, as is shown by the fact that it is becoming more and more difficult for graduates of public schools to enter colleges which refuse to admit freshmen on the certificate plan.

In the second place, employers of labor are now contending with powerfully organized labor unions; they import illiterate immigrants for unskilled work, and they turn to the schools for skilled workmen. This, it seems to me, is the reason for the sudden pressure on our schools from the outside to subordinate mental discipline to vocational expertness. What else can the cry mean that no boy or girl should waste time on abstract studies, but should leave school trained to *do things;* to go at once into the trades and become self-supporting without any intermediate apprenticeship? How else can we explain the rise of vocational work, of trades high schools, or of classes in agriculture in the slum districts of cities?

Miss Repplier illustrates this changed composition of our schools by this story: "A visitor of an investigating turn of mind asked the pupils of various nationalities, Germans, Polacks, Russian Jews, Italians, Armenians, and Greeks, to stand up in turn. When the long list was seemingly exhausted, he bethought himself of a nation he had overlooked, and said, 'Now let the American children arise!' Whereupon one lone, lorn little black boy stood up to represent the native-born."

To overcome this horrid condition of polyglot, the natural course would be to reduce the curriculum for those thus handicapped to a minimum until they had become familiar with the English language and American institutions. But instead of doing the obvious thing, educators have hearkened to every enthusiast, and have put a little of everything in the dish to be crammed down the throats of gullible children, with the hope that a few of the ingredients will nourish and that the others will pass through without doing harm.

There are some who see the folly of such a diet, but somehow, when they suggest any eliminations, they are likely to choose the ones which should be preserved. As an example, Mr. Wilson Farrand, in an article on "The Relations between School and College," states:

> It might be well if, by displacing a little arithmetic and geography, he [the pupil] coud gain some knowledge of the elements of Latin or of a modern language; in some manner there must be roused in him a love for trees, a respect for birds, an antipathy to cigarettes, and an ambition for clean streets; and somewhere, somewhere in this mad chaos, he must learn to spell! Do you wonder that teachers in progressive schools confide to us that they fear their pupils are slightly bewildered? Do you wonder that pupils do not gain the habit and the power of concentrated, consecutive work?

Mr. Farrand sees the trouble; but why does he not propose the obvious remedy of displacing some of the useless fads which cause the chaos, instead of arithmetic and geography?

But there is no need of quoting to show that conditions are chaotic. I had the good fortune to have a very clear statement given me by a boy in the seventh grade of a progressive school in a large city.* This school is an excellent example, as it has the advantage of being in a congested district and draws its pupils largely from alien immigrants. The session consists of ten bells, recitation periods of one-half hour each, a day, or fifty a week, and I have grouped the subjects to show those which are related. The olla podrida is as follows:

Subject	Half-hour periods a week.
English grammar	3
English composition	1
English spelling	3
German	4
Arithmetic	9
Geography	3
History	2
	25
Civics	1
Science	1
Art	2
Music	2
Penmanship	2
Manual training	6
Vocational work	1
Printing	3
Gymnasium	2
Study	5
	25

In spite of much criticism against new methods of teaching the old subjects, I believe that they are taught better now than they were in the past. But when we find that this boy is struggling with seventeen different subjects in the course of a week, it is quite evident that mental discipline is relegated to a minor part in the development of the child. To be exact, just one-half of the time is spent on those subjects which are considered by all to be necessary for a small boy's education. During the other half of the time, the pupil is doing something constantly under the direction of the teacher, except for the two and a half hours a week assigned to study, which, in addition, are confined to three days a week. This is, probably, the greatest fault in the schedule. It means a deal of cramming, and very little time "to gain the habit and the power of concentrated, consecutive work." Nor is home work encouraged; and, considering the length of the school day, it is not necessary or advisable. Children are held at school during the whole day largely to keep them off the streets and to meet the objections of parents who do not wish them bothering at home. Thus, many teachers admit that trifling and mechanical occupations must be introduced to keep children busy without requiring too great a mental effort.

The subjects, beginning with civics, are trifling factors in the mental development of a young child. They have been introduced to fill up time, to give the children of ignorant aliens a little knowledge of American customs and more decent habits of hygiene, cleanliness, and civic life; to offer a sop to outside pressure, which insists that children should learn in school to do things and fit themselves for a vocation. If the public really wish to know what these courses cost, they have merely to examine the budgets of school boards; and, if they wish to know how inadequate they are, they should attend a few classes and not be content to read announcements of what educators presume will be accomplished.

Printing must be looked upon as a pure and useless fad. Useless in itself, there can

*I have thought it better to give the pupil's account of elementary education, as, after all, that is the aim of teaching, rather than to take my material from school prospectuses and pedagogical monographs. It is so easy to be deceived by the sanguine statements of what a course or curriculum is designed to do, that I think it safer to tell what the pupil gets out of certain subjects and how the instruction is actually given.

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be no desire in the minds of educators and parents to induce large numbers of children to enter that trade. Yet I remember distinctly when the printing presses were installed in this school. The event was exploited by the newspapers as an evidence that we were finally introducing a real, live subject into a dead curriculum. And pictures of little girls were published with compositors' sticks in their hands or working at the press. And my boy friend showed me his visiting-card, printed at school; just such a one as other boys used to print on toy presses forty years ago for fun. On it are his full name, his telephone number, his address, and his future occupation—as a violinist; he really expects to be a farmer, but the other looks braver and, besides, he can play on the violin.

This leads us to that glittering and vivid subject, vocational work. The influence behind this fad is, as I have said, the cry that the chief end of education is to prepare a boy to *do something*. There are two evident causes for this plea for "efficiency," both of which rest on the need for labor. Child-labor laws have been passed in most States, and just recently by the Federal Government, which require children to remain at school until they have reached the age of from fourteen to sixteen years. In spite of being a benefit to most children, these laws add a financial burden to parents and employers of cheap labor. And, in the second place, many labor unions have added to the burden by discouraging the policy of apprenticeships and by endeavoring to keep the number in each trade at a minimum.

If we accept this doctrine, which seems to me an abominable one, that real efficiency is a matter of business, and that the first aim of education is to teach a trade, rather than to train the mind for citizenship and for true culture, probably we could further this aim by establishing tremendous trade- and apprentice-schools at the public cost, and so relieve parents and employers of the bother and expense of training their servants.

If vocational training is to be undertaken seriously in our public schools, it is self-evident that experts must be engaged and an adequate equipment provided for each of the important occupations. But, as this is ruinously expensive even for the ominous budgets of school boards, the method is adopted of engaging a single teacher to read from a book little gossipy details relative to a haphazard selection of trades. In this particular case, the teacher of all the vocations is a young woman, of no practical experience, who is the product of one of our experimental station schools, such as the University High School of the University of Chicago.

Once a week, for a half hour, she conducts a class of twenty boys who have, in their wisdom, selected their future occupations. She reads from her textbook the details of an intricate trade until she has in succession exhausted all of them, or has, perhaps, finished the book. For example, when shoemaking is the subject of the day, all those who do not expect to be shoemakers are requested to read something else, or to amuse themselves quietly. As there is no unanimity of choice by the boys, the result must be as weird as the vocational methods of Mr. Squeers. For practical work, last year they marched through a shoe factory and a biscuit bakery. Being curious, I asked my friend what he had learned about farming, as that was his choice. "Oh," said he, "I have been in the class for two years and she hasn't got to it yet, and anyhow *she* doesn't know anything about farming."

Later on, these boys will be passed through a bureau of vocational guidance and their qualities will be tested by a set of psychological experiments. The directors of the bureau are likely to be persons without experience in any of the vocations and ignorant of the conditions of any business or of any profession except pedagogy. The tests will be devised in the seclusion of a university laboratory, such as Professor Münsterberg's famous one for determining the qualifications of a ship captain, which is about as relevant to the actual conditions of life as would be the prognostications of a phrenologist. The bewildered children, not knowing what they are doing, will answer at random. For one boy of fourteen who has any particular aptitude which he will follow through life, ninety-nine will take up the kind of work which necessity or chance opens up to them. Many of them will fail in their first attempts and by failures will learn more valuable lessons than they could by immediate success. Finally, they will settle down to their life-work; in too many cases with their minds flabby because of the lack of early mental discipline.

In spite of the present confusion in public education, the best hope for its future lies in the fact that our school authorities are still drifting. Consciously or unconsciously, we shall follow one of two paths. If our public schools continue to emphasize vocational work above mental discipline, and to standardize education down to the needs of the melting-pot, then children of the intelligent classes will more and more be sent to private schools. This is most undesirable, as it will lower the standards of public education still further; and it is contrary to the best interests of a democratic spirit. If educators see the danger they are creating, they will provide a sound and liberal curriculum for children who, by ability or traditions, are capable of assimilating it. This training should be along the lines approved by experience as being sound and still maintained in our best private schools. And they will provide separate instruction for those who are deficient in ability or who have not had the advantages of an ancestry trained in self-government and in high standards of civil and moral life. The instruction in these classes should be very rudimentary. It should aim to teach simple English and proper habits, and gradually to fit the children to be good citizens and to be parents of a sturdy and enlightened race.

Shakespearean Scholarship

A REVIEW OF THE LAST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

By ASHLEY H. THORNDIKE.

Shakespearean scholarship is an extensive affair. Whatever else may be said about it, one cannot avoid comment on its increasingly rapid expansion. The number of persons, the amount of labor, the variety of interests which it engages, have multiplied during the past twenty-five years and show no signs of diminution. Many languages lend their aid, and all civilized nations are engaged in the undertaking. It marshals a great army for its various tasks of research, interpretation, synthesis, and popularization. With its sister enterprise, Shakespearean criticism, it has become a reflection of changes in taste and thought, a significant index of the world's intellectual activities.

To the layman, and even at times to the devotee, the question must come, Why is there no end? Why does not all this effort reach a conclusion? Shakespeare is dead, his plays are finished; is there no possibility of completing all that can possibly be known of him and his dramas? The answer is that, although Shakespeare's writing is finished, civilization is unfinished, and, we hope, growing. The problem of scholarship is to find out what civilization desires or needs to know about this or that; to answer the new inquiries and to investigate the new implications that the general progress of knowledge is ever creating; and hence to view these plays and poems written three hundred years ago not as dead but as a vital and continuing part of the world's culture. Homer is very much alive after three thousand years, and is still inspiring new inquiry as well as new admiration. Dante still affords opportunity for both brilliant discovery and patient tabulation. Shakespearean criticism and scholarship, though vigorous and growing, are both very youthful. Criticism began fifty years after Shakespeare's death with Dryden's "Essay of Dramatic Poesy," and scholarship did not have a real beginning until the publication of Theobald's "Shakespeare Restored" in 1726. The last twenty-five years, at which I shall glance, contribute but a trivial period in the world's study of one of its leaders.

I.

As the study of any subject spreads and multiplies, it is confronted with the large task of organization. It becomes divided and subdivided into many special researches. It must continually consolidate its positions before attempting further advances. It must indicate and limit its problems, determine the methods which have proved effective, and constantly perfect its technique. Unfortunately, in any field of human effort a large amount of energy must be consumed

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in correcting the errors of our predecessors. There must be a frequent taking account of stock, rejecting what is wrong or useless, noting what is finished, separating what is supernumerary from what is indispensable. The mere enumeration and cataloguing of publications about Shakespeare becomes an enormous task, and his bibliography now takes its toll in years of service. Looking back on the last quarter of a century, we are probably safe in saying that the most obvious improvement has been through this work of organization. The various fields and problems are arranged and their approaches and opportunities defined as never before. Shakespearean scholarship now knows what it is about, and plans carefully for its further progress.

I have hinted that scholarship and criticism are now closely allied in the study of Shakespeare. If by the one we imply the examination of data in the search for information and knowledge, and if by the other we mean the expression of opinion and feelings, it is yet manifest that the two cannot be sharply separated and that one must always be affected by the other. Within the last generation there has been a marked change from appreciative and interpretative to historical criticism. The romanticist critics under the leadership of Coleridge in England and Schlegel in Germany had carried to an extreme their method of interpreting Shakespeare's plays in terms of their own personal feelings and philosophy; and the reaction has consequently been strong to a criticism which views Shakespeare's work as the result of the development of ideas and art in the sixteenth century. We are now less inclined to admire every line of the plays as the product of a paragon who expresses all that we believe about art, conduct, and other matters; we are more insistent on regarding Shakespeare as a dramatist writing for a peculiar theatre in the time of Queen Elizabeth.

I do not mean to assert that interpretative criticism has disappeared or much decreased. It has recently received notable exemplification in the acute and subtle studies of Mr. A. C. Bradley. But in many ways historical criticism has been making itself felt, and its influence on scholarship can be observed in at least two effects. First, even the appreciative critic has come to feel the need of some historical basis for the expression of his opinion. A critic like Mr. Bradley who seeks a philosophy in Shakespeare (and finds a neo-Hegelian variety of which he approves) is careful to take full account of the results of scholarship. Indeed, criticism can now be said to be aware of its dependence on scholarship. Secondly, the new historical point of view in criticism has stimulated the investigations of scholars into the conditions that surrounded and affected Shakespeare's work.

Both the organization of Shakespearean scholarship and its large concern with times and environment were already manifest twenty-five years ago. Its general field had been marked out into some main divisions where procedure and objects were well agreed upon; and the need of especial attention to historical research was recognized. The biography by Halliwell-Phillipps was brought to a seventh and final edition in 1887; the study of the chronology of the plays had employed ingenious methods of verse-tests in addition to a reëxamination of other evidences and had reached results that stand substantially to-day; the textual work of Clark and Wright in the Globe and Cambridge editions reached its final form in 1891-1893; and Schmidt's Lexicon, perhaps still the greatest monument of Shakespearean scholarship in Germany, was published in 1894. The organization of research and study had been carried on through such agencies as the New Shakespeare Society in England and the Shakespeare Gesellschaft in Germany, which had begun the publication of its valuable bibliographies in its "Jahrbuch." The work of many antiquaries concerning theatrical history had been supplemented and coördinated in the brilliant if not altogether trustworthy works of F. G. Fleay, the last of these, his "Biographical Chronicle," appearing in 1891.

These important publications in a considerable measure marked out the course which scholarship has pursued during the past twenty-five years. I shall survey hastily the continuation of similar undertakings, biographies, texts, editions, studies of sources, bibliographies, and special monographs; and I shall look with more especial attention on the progress made in general organization and in historical research.

II.

In the field of biography a considerable amount of new material has been collected. Perhaps the most striking addition is the discovery by Prof. C. W. Wallace of documents in a law suit of 1612 which preserve a signature of the poet and indicate that he lodged for some time with a family of Mountjoys near Cripplegate. Far more informing, however, as to Shakespeare's career are the numerous documents that recently have been discovered concerning the business affairs of the various theatrical companies. A number of investigators, including Professor Wallace, have been fortunate in this search; and while their discoveries are rarely directly connected with Shakespeare personally, they have thrown much light on his activities as an actor and author. This new information has given additional incentive to the active investigation and analysis of theatrical history; and the importance which this subject has for the biography of Shakespeare can be seen by a glance at the recent new edition of Sir Sidney Lee's "Life of Shakespeare." When first published in 1898, this work contained few facts not to be found in Halliwell-Phillipps, apart from its author's valuable and extensive study of the Sonnets. The new edition is enlarged over one-half in bulk, mainly by summaries of research into the affairs of the theatre and the companies.

A sound text of Shakespeare's plays had been established by the century and a half of scholarship which culminated in the work of the Cambridge editors, Clark and Wright. Prof. W. A. Neilson in his text has made about all the improvements for which the Cambridge edition left an opportunity. What remains to be done in textual criticism will probably await a collaborative effort.

A startling discovery in respect to the quartos and folios is that made by Mr. A. W. Pollard and Mr. W. W. Greg. They found that two Shakespearean quartos of 1600 and two of 1608, along with several by other dramatists, were really published in 1619, with false dates on the title pages. The motives which led to this deception are not clear, and the discovery does not much affect the accepted text of the plays in question; but the accumulation of typographical and bibliographical evidence which led to this exposure of ancient fraud makes an unusual chapter in Shakespearean scholarship. The bibliographical examination of existing copies of folios and quartos has also been carried on with great thoroughness, and excellent photographic facsimiles have been made generally available. Note should also be taken of the discovery of a copy of the first quarto (1594) of "Titus Andronicus" in Sweden in 1903. No copy had been heard of since 1691.

Of the many editions of Shakespeare, preeminence must be given to the "New Variorum," begun in 1871, by the late H. Howard Furness and still in progress under the editorship of his son. The fiftieth anniversary of its first volume will see this monumental work scarcely more than half finished. Its complete textual apparatus and its extensive abstract of previous editorial comment render this edition an invaluable record of scholarship and criticism, and the great services of Dr. Furness have richly deserved the recognition they have received from every quarter. But a work continuing for so long inevitably lays itself open to some criticism as points of view change. Schmidt's Lexicon, the New English Dictionary, and the extensive study of Elizabethan literature have made unnecessary many of the editorial comments which the scheme of the Variorum compels it still to record; and no one now cares for the many interpretations and eulogies of Shakespeare's characters which were highly valued in 1871; and the recent abundant republication of documents renders superfluous the reprinting of excerpts. Nor is the close adherence of the later volumes to the Folio any more justifiable, in my opinion, than the discriminating eclecticism of the earlier.

Even a variorum edition to-day must face what for most editors is the real problem, not how much to include, but how much to omit. From the great accumulation of comment and interpretation, what shall be discarded? By what processes shall it be edited? The task has been so considerable and so requiring of both judgment and knowledge

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that the tendency is marked towards collaborative editorship. Two recent editions may be instanced as examples of collaboration and as illustrating different methods of editorial procedure. In the English "Arden Shakespeare," the text, by the late W. J. Craig, adheres closely to the Cambridge, and for each play a special editor has provided an elaborate though able commentary. In the American "Tudor Shakespeare," using the Neilson text, the special editors have been more concerned to minimize the notes and merely to indicate the difficulties and problems. C. H. Herford's Eversley edition has been similarly sparing of illustration and inconclusive discussion. While the discussion of shades of Elizabethan meaning and of difficult syntax and corrupt passages will doubtless continue to engage study and speculation, it would seem that scholarship should now have attained the ability to sift and select. It is possible to interpret the text with assurance and brevity.

Much that has been written about Shakespeare no longer deserves recognition as of moment, but may be relegated to a place in the history of Shakespearean criticism. This formidable subject now engages many students in the collection of allusions, the comparison of different versions and adaptations, the recording of stage performances, and in general in the analysis of changes of taste and knowledge as they have affected the attitude of successive generations towards Shakespeare's plays. The most considerable studies in this field have been the volumes, "Shakespearean Wars," by Professor Lounsbury. In bibliography great advances have been made both in the accurate examination of early editions and in various guides offered to students and collectors. Mr. Jaggard's great "Shakespeare Bibliography" represents the most arduous effort, a list of all publications on Shakespeare in the English language. Future historians should have an easier time with the editions and criticism of the present generation, for these are admirably recorded in the current bibliographies in the "Jahrbuch."

In the history of Shakespearean criticism one large chapter might be devoted to questions of authenticity. It would include problems of authorship, the apocryphal plays, forgeries and frauds in scholarship, and perhaps such interminable delusions as that of the Baconians. There are certainly a few plays in the usual Shakespearean canon not wholly by Shakespeare, and at least one outside, the "Two Noble Kinsmen," in which he probably had a share. But the problems in regard to these, if not solved, are at least clearly indicated, and are being attacked by investigators with promising results. The forgeries with which nineteenth-century scholarship was tainted are now presumably nearly all exposed, and happily have had no successors. But Professor Lounsbury's title, "Shakespearean Wars," may remind us that the course of criticism has been marked by innumerable wrangles. Debates over theories have led to personal animosities, question of priority in discovery, and sometimes to contests of billingsgate. If the past twenty-five years have not produced any "flytings" comparable to those of Pope and Theobald, of Steevens and Malone, or those of the New Shakespeare Society, on the other hand it cannot be said that they have been free from personal bickerings. No such blemish mars the record of the two great American scholars of the passing generation. The recent deaths of Professor Lounsbury and Dr. Furness have reminded us that honesty and geniality are fit companions for indefatigable scholarship and catholic learning.

The study of sources may be connected with the wider inquiry into the relations of the plays to preceding and contemporary literature. It is no longer sufficient to name the source of one of the plots. We are interested in knowing how Shakespeare's treatment compares with that of other versions. And we are interested in examining his plays in connection with the works of contemporary writers, noting borrowings and adaptations, parallels and analogues. This kind of research has been extended in many directions. In various studies, especially those under the guidance of Professor Brandl, of Berlin, the stories of a number of the plays have been carried back to their origins. The first volume of Professor Schick's "Corpus Hamleticum" traces the story of the lucky child with the death-letter through versions in India, China, Egypt, Abyssinia, and indeed through nearly all of Asia and Africa. Other studies have been concerned with the direct relations between Shakespeare and his fellow-dramatists and have disclosed the influence upon him of the contemporary drama.

In this connection, the increasing attention given to sixteenth-century literature, and especially to the drama, has been of great service. Editions of certain dramatists, as that of Kyd by Professor Boas, and that of Lyly by R. W. Bond, have added directly to our knowledge of Shakespeare's work, as have the histories of dramatic literature by Sir Adolphus W. Ward and Professor Schelling, and that great survey of comparative literature, Creizenach's "Geschichte des neueren Dramas." Contributions have also come from a host of monographs dealing with special authors, influences, or conditions.

Closely allied to this study of contemporary drama has been the advance in our knowledge of the Elizabethan theatre. Twenty-five years ago this was in a curiously muddled condition, due partly to Collier's tampering with documents, but not much clarified by Fleay's great work. Mr. Fleay undoubtedly knew more about the subject than any one else of his day, and his books are still the most valuable on the subject; but he had so mixed conjecture and fact, what he knew with what he had forgotten, that it has been necessary to go over again the entire field of his activity. While this work of revision has been going on, a group of investigators have been searching all collections of Elizabethan documents with a thoroughness never known before, and have brought to light records of lawsuits, deeds, court payments, diplomatic reports, and so on, which have altered and enlarged our knowledge of theatrical history. It has proved necessary to reëxamine, arrange, and analyze all the documents bearing on the Elizabethan theatre; and this task is now fairly well on its way to accurate and systematic accomplishment.

In this work, A. Feuillerat, Mrs. Stopes, C. W. Wallace, E. K. Chambers, and J. T. Murray have been among the discoverers. The reprinting and editing of documents have been carried out admirably in the editions of the Revels Accounts by Feuillerat, and of that most important document, "Henslowe's Diary," by Mr. W. W. Greg. The organization of this work of historical research has been greatly furthered by the enterprise and enthusiasm of Prof. W. Bang, of the University of Louvain, through his publication, "Materialien zur Kunde des älteren englischen Dramas"—now one of the lamentable ruins of war—and by the Malone Society under the direction of W. W. Greg and E. K. Chambers. Too much praise cannot be given to the services of these two scholars, both in accurate research and acute interpretation.

I shall not attempt to trace the bearing upon Shakespearean criticism of this antiquarian research into the affairs of the theatre, or of the detailed study of Shakespeare's relations to contemporary drama. These studies correspond to the new critical attitude which approaches literature with an interrogation mark instead of an exclamation point, and is less concerned with telling how much we admire the poet than in recording how his plays came to be written. Accurate knowledge of the theatre has proved helpful for a knowledge of his biography, of what he was doing from year to year, for a right estimate of the development of his imagination and of the causes of its interests and attachments, and for a sound understanding of both the meaning and beauty of his plays.

This study of his theatre and drama has also encouraged criticism to concern itself about Shakespeare as a dramatist rather than as a philosopher or personality. Recent volumes by Profs. George Baker and Brander Matthews emphasize this point of view; and studies of the history of the stage in various periods and in various countries have helped to create a new view of the requirements and opportunities of the dramatic art as it appeared to Shakespeare.

Though I have now touched on some of the main occupations of modern scholarship, there are many others for which space is lacking. Grammar, pronunciation, metrics, and vocabulary have not been neglected by specialists; and mention must be made of Bartlett's "New and Complete Concordance," 1894. It is difficult even to suggest the va-

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riety of subjects that occupy the attention of investigators.

III.

Are these miscellaneous inquiries merely at haphazard, or how are they directed? Certain elements of organization have already been mentioned, as colloborative undertakings and societies for publication. Such publications as the "Materialien," the "Jahrbuch" of the German Shakespeare Gesellschaft, and those of the Malone Society carry on the expensive work of reprinting texts and documents, and under wise editorship exercise some direction over research. In Germany and the United States, and latterly to a considerable measure in France, the organization of Shakespearean scholarship has been largely in the hands of the universities. In England the university presses of Cambridge and Oxford have encouraged various scholarly undertakings, as notably the "Cambridge History of English Literature." In Germany there are long series of volumes emanating from the universities, Berlin and Munich perhaps taking the lead in the study of Shakespeare. From France have come a number of studies in the Elizabethan field; and younger scholars bid fair to maintain the important position secured for French Shakespearean scholarship by the distinguished services of the present Ambassador to this country. In the United States, what little encouragement there is for publication comes from the scholarly journals and the university presses. At least two universities, Wisconsin and Columbia, have this year issued volumes of studies in commemoration of the tercentenary.

The organization of scholarship is further carried on by graduate courses and by doctors' dissertations. By this machinery the professor is able to lend his greater experience and wider knowledge, and the young student can bend his energies directly on a profitable research. It cannot be denied that the success of this method as a means of research has been jeopardized by many difficulties; but it is absurd to speak of the Ph.D. dissertations as negligible. If we look simply at those dissertations themselves, without considering later and more important work to which they proved only introductions, they offer very significant contributions to the Shakespearean scholarship of the past twenty years. Every one acquainted with this literature in German and English will recall many monographs that no scholar would neglect, in the study of sources, of the relations of contemporary dramatists to Shakespeare, of the government regulation of the theatres, and the puritan opposition, of dramatic types and their technique, of Shakespeare's reading, of the arrangement of the physical stage and the methods of presenting plays, of particular problems offered by individual plays or special conditions in stage history, and of the interrelations between the England of Shakespeare and the Continent. The efforts of younger students have been directed to those very fields where progress has been the greatest. They have done much to clear the field and to lead the way on new excursions.

To stress this matter of organization is not to forget the value of the individual scholar. The solitary student will continue to accomplish important results, and the amateur may often put to shame the professor. But individual eccentricity, from which Shakespearean scholarship has suffered so much in the past, will probably be less potent in the future. It is through the plans and preparations of organizations as societies and universities that scholarship is likely to effect its further progress.

IV.

In glancing at some of the outstanding achievements of the past twenty-five years, I have had occasion to mention English, German, French, Austrian, Belgian, and American scholars. A slightly more thorough survey would have called on other nations of Europe; and if our scope were enlarged to include the translation into foreign tongues and the interpretation in terms of foreign culture, it would become necessary to journey around the globe and into all civilized lands. Yet in speaking of Shakespearean scholarship, it has not been possible to make distinctions of nationality or language, since all are following the same purpose and by nearly the same methods. The race is not for individual or national primacy, but in pursuit of knowledge, which is an international concern. And our devotion is to one

> To whom all scenes of Europe homage owe.
> He was not of an age but for all time.

Yet a word may be permitted on the importance of American scholarship, not for the world, but for ourselves. Sixty years ago Shakespearean study in the United States had given almost no evidence of existence; and in its brief history it has had to contend with many difficulties, with remoteness from the great collections of books and documents, and with national interests and occupations on the whole inhospitable to literary research. That in the last generation this scholarship has resulted in so many important contributions and is to-day so active, so well organized, and so ambitious, is a matter for some general consideration. In recent years we have become accustomed to taking stock of ourselves in moods of alternate pride and humiliation. The time has about arrived for our nation to discover that it has reason to be proud of its scholarship.

At the present moment, in the midst of dreadful war, one almost lacks the courage to speak of the humanizing value of an international scholarly interest. And yet, of the many ties which bind this nation to an undertanding and sympathy with England, the common study of Shakespeare is not the weakest. The growing part taken by France in this same study is surely one of the many signs of her continually broadening intelligence. And a national culture has rarely appeared more generous and humane than in the unbroken allegiance which German scholarship has paid now for over a century to the great Englishman. It is, after all, not only by treaties and federations and political theories that the nations are again to be bound together. It is not merely through trade and industry and diplomacy that we are to secure union and toleration. There are ties to be found in literature and its attendant scholarship, and one of the strongest of these should be the admiration of that writer whose genius lies in his power to excite sympathy and understanding for our fellows. There are, we believe, many organic filaments which still survive from which, out of the present conflagration, the Phœnix of a better civilization will yet arise. Many a man to-day on the battle-front or in deserted classroom is not forgetful of the filament which bound him to others in the common enjoyment of the free play of the mind and the devoted pursuit of knowledge.

Giuseppe Pitre and Sicilian Folk-Lore

By T. F. CRANE.

There died in Palermo, on the 10th of last April, at the age of seventy-five, Giuseppe Pitrè, beloved for his civic virtues and famous throughout the world as the tireless collector of the folk-lore of his native island. Born in Palermo, December 22, 1841, of a poor family of sailors, Giuseppe, the third of four children, lived to be a useful physician, the leading citizen of his native place, and died a Senator of the kingdom, overwhelmed with every token of esteem and veneration which his grateful countrymen could express in outward honors and personal affection.

The only career that can be compared with his is that of the brothers Grimm; but these were essentially scholars and their lives were largely spent in the seclusion of their study. Besides, wide as was the scope of their labors, it did not equal in extent the field cultivated by Pitrè, and after the "Kinder- und Hausmärchen" and the "Deutsche Sagen" the interests of the brothers became almost exclusively linguistic and lexicographical. Petrè, on the other hand, was all his life a practicing physician, and took a prominent part in the civic affairs of Palermo, being Syndic, or Mayor, for many years. The Grimms were chiefly concerned with the tales and legends of Germany and its mediæval literature: Pitrè throughout his long life devoted himself to every branch of folk-lore—popular tales, legends, songs, children's games, proverbs, riddles, customs, etc.—and collected himself an astounding mass of material, only a part of which is represented in the twenty-five volumes of the "Biblioteca delle tradizioni popolari siciliane" (Palermo, 1871-1914).

His outward life was the uneventful one of a physician and scholar. After a brief taste of military life, in 1860, he studied medicine in the University of Palermo. He was early attracted to the field of popular literature and

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began to collect the proverbs and peculiar expressions of the seafaring people. His mother was the daughter of a sailor, and as long as she lived aided her son in his work by her knowledge and sympathy. She died in 1892 and Pitrè dedicated to her memory two years later his monumental work, "Bibliografia delle tradizioni popolari d'Italia." In the dedication he says: "Because there is nothing which recalls better and more faithfully thy sweet image than this work, which thou, my guardian angel, didst see born, thrive, and almost reach its end, as a labor in which thy spirit still breathes, I place at its front thy name, first and final love of my life."

Pitrè's literary interests widened as he grew and he obtained a modest post as teacher in a gymnasium, but he soon lost his position through a misunderstanding and the personal spite of an official. Henceforth he devoted himself to the practice of medicine and to the collection of the popular tales, songs, customs, etc. There is not space here to tell of his unselfish labors among the poor, or the prominent part he played in the public life of Palermo. He was most happily married and had two daughters and a son. One of his daughters, Maria, greatly assisted her father in his literary work. The other daughter, Rosina, was lost with her little child in the earthquake at Messina, and not long after, the son, who had followed his father's profession, died at the beginning of his career. The unhappy father never recovered from these terrible blows. Every possible token of sympathy and love was lavished upon him. The state founded a chair of folk-lore in the University of Palermo and made Pitrè its first incumbent. The city established a Museum of Sicilian Ethnography and Folk-lore under his charge. Finally, the King bestowed upon him the highest honor in the gift of the Crown, and made him a Senator of the realm. His death was mourned by the entire city of Palermo, and it is said that over fifty thousand of its citizens followed his remains to the grave. Verily peace hath its victories, and in the midst of the bloodshed of war the memory was not neglected of one whose life was spent in unselfish devotion to his fellow-men and to the promotion of the intellectual interests of his country.

It is difficult in my restricted space to give an idea of Pitrè's work. The titles of his books and articles alone would fill many columns. But, fortunately, one collection is typical and will do for my purposes. Before examining it, however, I may mention by way of elimination two other collections, or, rather, a periodical and a series, of which he was editor, and to the former of which he was a constant contributor. I allude to the "Archivio per lo studio delle tradizioni popolari," which was begun in 1882 and ended, in the middle of the twenty-fourth volume, in 1907. The associate editor during all this time was Doctor Salvatore Salomone-Marino, a physician also and lifelong friend of Pitrè, and a prolific collector and writer in the same field. For many years the "Archivio" was the foremost folk-lore journal of the world, and Pitrè's contributions would fill many volumes. The second enterprise was the "Curiosità popolari tradizionali," of which sixteen volumes of popular tales, songs, customs, etc., appeared between 1885 and 1890. To this Pitrè himself made no contribution, but exercised editorial supervision.

I will now return to the work on which Pitrè's fame will rest and which illustrates every phase of his intellectual activity, the "Biblioteca delle tradizioni popolari siciliane," consisting of twenty-five volumes published between 1871 and 1914, embracing every branch of Sicilian folk-lore. Before considering this work in detail it may be well to ask what had been accomplished in this field before Pitrè.

Two of the earliest, and still the most entertaining, collections of popular tales appeared in Italy in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries: the "Piacevoli Notti" of Straparola (Venice, 1550) and the "Pentamerone" of Basile (Naples, 1637). Of the seventy-four stories in the first collection, twenty-two are *märchen;* the fifty stories of the second all rest on popular tradition and constitute a unique monument of popular literature. With the exception of "La Possillecheata" of the Bishop of Bisceglie, Pompeo Sarnelli (Naples, 1684) two centuries elapsed before another collection of Italian tales made its appearance. In 1860 and 1865 Temistocle Gradi, of Siena, published a dozen popular tales, as related in Siena. The first impulse to the scientific collection of tales was given by De Gubernatis in his "Novelline di Santo Stefano" (1869). A little earlier the attention of foreigners was directed to Italian tales by various translations in the "Jahrbuch für Romanische und Englische Literatur," and above all by the two volumes of "Sicilian Tales" (1870) collected and translated into German by Laura Gonzenbach, with the precious notes of Reinhold Köhler. The next year Miss Busk published her interesting "Folk-lore of Rome," and about the same time appeared the "Novellaja Fiorentina" and the "Novellaja Milanese" of Vittorio Imbriani. These were the first of the Italian collections taken down from the mouths of the people, and preceded by three years Pitrè's monumental work.

In the field of popular poetry much had been done in Italy before Pitrè by native and foreign collectors and scholars. The works of Niccolò Tommaseo ("Canti popolari Toscani, Corsi, Illirici, Greci," four volumes, 1841-42) and of Costantino Nigra ("Canzoni popolari del Piemonte," 1858-62) are of permanent value. Uncritical and untrustworthy is the volume of Sicilian popular poetry published by Lionardo Vigo in 1857 (enlarged edition in 1870-74), and the same may be said, to a lesser extent, of the "Canti popolari Toscani" of Giuseppe Tigri (1856, third edition, 1870). It was in this field that Pitrè began his work with the first two volumes of his "Biblioteca" devoted to "Canti popolari siciliani" (1871), followed the next year by a volume of "Studi di Poesia popolare." Pitrè's collection contains about a thousand poems of every variety, lyrical and narrative, secular and religious, all collected with the greatest exactness as to form and locality, preceded by a critical study, and followed by a glossary. The volume of "Studi" contains a number of articles, critical, historical, and bibliographical. There is unfortunately no space here to dwell upon the extreme beauty of the poems themselves or upon the interesting questions of their origin and diffusion.

Of more general interest and value are the four volumes of "Fiabe, novelle e racconti popolari siciliani" (1875), a collection of popular tales worthy of ranking, as to contents, with that of the Grimms. I say "as to contents," for the Grimms by their treatment of their material created a literary *genre.* Since the Grimms the conception of the collector's duty has changed and he is supposed to lay before the public (of scholars) his raw materials. Imbriani, in his "Novellaja fiorentina," mentioned above, had his stories taken down by shorthand. The result is anything but pleasant for the general reader. Pitrè gives his stories exactly as they were narrated, largely by old women, and although they are sometimes dramatic in form they are often monotonous and full of repetitions. Still, the scientific value of this large number, three hundred, of stories from all parts of Sicily and in all the dialects, is very great. Pitrè's introduction is already somewhat antiquated in its theories of the origin and diffusion of popular tales. More valuable is a grammar of the Sicilian dialect and patois, with an excellent glossary. Without these the task of reading the stories would be a heavy one to the foreigner, and not easy even for the Italian. Pitrè in his notes has wisely refrained from attempting to connect his stories with European *märchen* in general and has given only the Italian continental variants.

We have already seen that Pitrè was first attracted to what was to be the work of his life by his interest in the proverbs and idioms of the Sicilian mariners. He compared these with the Tuscan proverbs in Giusti's great collection of over six thousand, and found a close resemblance between the proverbs of the two provinces. Later he made this subject the third division of his "Biblioteca": "Proverbi Siciliani racconti e confrontati con quelli degli altri dialetti d'Italia," four volumes, 1880. Some idea of the richness of Pitrè's collection may be formed from the fact that it fills over eighteen hundred 16mo pages and contains thirteen thousand proverbs from Sicily, besides nine thousand and five hundred parallels from the rest of Italy, representing some thirty dialects. The first volume contains a bibliography of the Sicilian proverbs and of those in the other Italian dialects, and a profound study on proverbs in general, their origin, diffusion, etc. Owing to the numerous parallels from Italy and other countries the collection affords very entertaining reading. The Sicilian proverbs themselves do not possess the wit of those of Central Italy, but neither do they have that bald cynicism and selfishness which have often been held to characterize all Italian proverbs.

The twelfth volume is devoted to "Spettacoli e Feste popolari" (1881), embracing traditional plays of the common people, pantomimes, processions with figures, speaking or mute, religious ceremonies of a dramatic nature, and dialogues in verse, as well as the customs and superstitions used in the celebration of certain religious festivals, such as Epiphany, Easter, Ascension Day, Christmas, and saints' days, like St. John's, etc. The sacred plays are of comparatively late date, from the sixteenth century down, and are mostly of learned origin. There is nothing like the extensive mediæval drama of France, or the literary religious drama of Central Italy, so well represented in the three volumes of D'Ancona's "Sacre rappresentazioni." Of the festivals the most popular in Sicily, as throughout the whole Catholic world, is St. John's, and the customs and superstitions which are connected with its celebration are found repeated in every country of Europe.

Of greater interest to the student of folk-lore is the thirteenth volume of "Children's Games" ("Giuochi fanciulleschi," 1883), which contains a mass of parallels to the children's games of other lands. The student will find much to add to our own H. C. Bolton's "Counting-Out Rhymes of Children," and W. W.

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Newell's "Songs and Games of American Children," as well as to Miss C. F. Jayne's "String Figures, a Study of Cat's-Cradle in Many Lands." Pitrè has prefixed a learned essay on children's games with a bibliography of the Italian works on the subject.

Four volumes (XIV-XVII, 1889) are devoted to "Usi e Costumi, Credenze e Pregiudizi." In the preface Pitrè says: "How I have got together this curious and miscellaneous material will seem strange to those who are not otherwise acquainted with me and do not know my usual occupations. A native of Palermo and a physician, I have always had opportunity to see and hear things which all do not see and hear, because not all are inclined to descend into the lowest depths of society; and from September, 1870, in which I began to write down, as I came across them, usages and superstitions, *nulla dies sine linea*, not a single day has passed without a note, or a reference." The contents of the four volumes are indeed curious and diversified. The first is devoted to the customs of the Carnival, the popular traditions of chivalry, musicians and dances, cries of the streets and country, dress and utensils, customs of the workers in the sulphur mines and of the fishermen and sailors. The traditions of chivalry are kept alive chiefly by the puppet-shows, well known in this country in centres of Italian population, and by the professional story-tellers, who may still be heard in continental Italy also. Pitrè gives some of the scenarios and stories, in prose and verse, based on the romances of chivalry. It will be interesting to see what the effect of the "movies" will be on these popular customs, in Italy and in this country. These traditions are also represented in the curious paintings with which the peculiar Sicilian carts are adorned. Here again, the motor-truck will be a dangerous competitor.

I can allude only briefly to the other three volumes, which contain marriage customs, customs connected with birth and death, and the curious customs of the "comparatico," or relationship of godparents to their godchildren. More interesting and better known to us are the "mafia" and "omertà," the derivation and meaning of which words Pitrè finds it difficult to explain. "*Mafia* has become," he says, "the synonym of brigandage, of *camorra*, and of highway robbery. At bottom it is the consciousness of one's own being, the exaggerated conception of individual force, the sole arbiter of every difference and clash of interests and ideas. If the *mafioso* is wronged he does not have recourse to justice, he does not submit to the law; if he did he would give proof of weakness and offend *omertà*, which is the quality of manliness (Latin *virtus*)." What a fatal rôle this sentiment of individual independence of law has played in Sicily and in the United States we know only too well.

The third volume deals with customs and beliefs connected with astronomy, meteorology, agriculture, botany, and zoölogy. Of more general interest is the fourth volume with its ghost- and witch-stories, its superstitions of the "evil-eye," of Friday, of enchanted treasures, and children's beliefs. Of all the above the most curious is the chapter relating to the Souls of the Beheaded (*Anime dei corpi decollati*). First there was a guild to comfort the condemned and provide masses for the repose of their souls; then a church was devoted to these services, and gradually, under the influence of the veneration for St. John the Baptist, himself beheaded, there grew up a belief in the miraculous powers of the souls of those who had suffered death upon the scaffold.

The eighteenth volume (1888) may be regarded as a supplement to the four volumes of *Fiabe* noticed above, as it contains a hundred and fifty-seven *märchen* and legends of the saints.

Perhaps the most valuable volume of the "Biblioteca" is the one devoted to Popular Medicine (Vol. XIX, 1896), and certainly no one could have been found more competent than Doctor Pitrè to collect and annotate the mass of material here presented for the first time to the specialist and student of folk-lore. After a preliminary chapter on medical practitioners, quacks, barbers, pharmacists, and herbalists, the editor divides his subject into: anatomy, physiology, physiognomy, and hygiene; general pathology, special external medical and surgical pathology, and special internal pathology. It is impossible to cite from this interesting volume, but we may mention some statistics given by the editor in his preface. He says that the diseases known by the Sicilian people are not much over a hundred, less than a half being internal ones. The remedes are largely vegetable; out of two hundred and ten in all Sicily, not less than a hundred and seventy belong to the vegetable kingdom, and a little over thirty to the animal kingdom. Olive oil, naturally, outstrips all other remedies, and is employed in forty diseases, besides being an ingredient in many popular prescriptions. Rock salt and sulphur are much used, especially the latter, which is the only mineral favored by every class of the people. Pitrè has some very wise remarks about the value of folk-medicine, which represents the experience of ages and has preserved much that is still precious.

One important and extensive class of popular literature is treated in the twentieth volume (1897): "Indovinelli, Dubbi, Scioglilingua," containing twelve hundred riddles and similar compositions. The riddles are in verse, as is also the case with the class of riddle-anecdotes and "Dubbi." The last are usually of eight lines, with alternate rhymes, for the questions, usually six or seven in number, and the same for the answers. The questions are usually propounded with the words: *Dimmi cu'*, "Tell me who," and remind one of the old Provençal and French *jeux partis*. In the same volume are *Domande facete*, which also recall the French *demandes joyeuses*, usually in two brief lines of verse, and what is called *Scioglilingua* ("tongue-looseners"), a series of words difficult to pronounce, of which we have examples in English, *e. g.*, "Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers," etc. Pitrè has contributed an elaborate introduction of two hundred and nine pages on the history of riddles and has added a bibliography of Italian works on riddles as well as Italian parallels to the Sicilian ones.

In one of the earlier volumes (XIII) of the "Biblioteca" Pitrè described the religious spectacles and certain prominent festivals of the church. This volume finds its continuation in the twenty-first (1900), containing *Feste Patronali* in Sicilia, which show a wealth of legends and religious observances gathered from all the provinces of the island. The most interesting customs are connected with the festival of Santa Rosalia, the patron saint of Palermo, while Dante's Santa Lucia is equally honored in Syracuse. Sixty of these *feste patronali* are described in this work, with many illustrations of objects and places. Many of the customs here described have been transplanted to this country, and the inhabitants of New York are familiar with the Italian mode of celebrating the saints' days.

In the eighteenth volume, briefly mentioned above, the editor gave a number of legends, mostly religious, but alluded to some local, historical ones, among them the famous one of "Cola Pesce" (Schiller's "Der Taucher"). This legend, treated at great length, occupies nearly half of Volume XXIII (1904): "Studi di Leggende Popolari in Sicilia e nuova raccolta di leggende Siciliane." The editor examines the legend in its written and oral forms, as well as its use in literature, and reprints the literary and popular versions in two appendixes. We do not have space to follow Pitrè in his masterly study of a popular legend in which he unravels the complicated threads of classic myths and Christian legend. We can only say that he completely demolishes the historicity of the Sicilian Cola Pesce of the time of Frederick II. In the same volume a number of other interesting legends are examined: The stratagem of the inhabitants of a besieged city throwing out food to the beseigers to show that the city is not suffering from the "hunger blockade" (Frontinus, "Strategematicon," xv); the legend of the Sicilian Vespers, legends relative to the Normans, and many legends of the saints and of enchanted treasures.

Another supplementary volume is the twenty-third (1910): "Proverbi, motti e scongiuri," with over a thousand proverbs to be added to the thirteen thousand published in 1880. Besides proverbs the volume contains words of comparison, beggars' formulas in asking alms, threats and insults, and prayers and charms. A melancholy interest attaches to this volume from its poignant dedication to the daughter, only twenty-three years old, who perished with her babe in the catastrophe of Messina.

The "Biblioteca" was completed in 1913 by the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth volumes: "La Famiglia, la Casa, la Vita del Popolo Siciliano," and "Cartelli, Pasquinate, Canti, Leggende, Usi del Popolo Siciliano." The contents, much of it supplementary to earlier volumes of the series, are sufficiently indicated by the titles; *cartelli*, it may be remarked, are "broadsides," of the same general nature as pasquinades.

I said at the beginning of this article that it would be impossible to give a complete list of Pitrè's works in the space at my disposal and that I should confine myself to the one great work which represented most of the fields of his activity. A glance at his monumental "Bibliografia" will show his other labors down to 1894. Since then, however, he accomplished much, of which I can here mention only "La Vita in Palermo cento e più anni fa," 1906, in two volumes, containing precious descriptions of Sicilian life which Pitrè gleaned chiefly from the works of foreign travellers.

I have compared Pitrè to the Grimms. They were great scholars and patriotic citizens. Pitrè was more than that. His life was one long effort to alleviate human suffering, and if he had a moment left from his arduous profession, it was devoted to the collection and preservation of the traditions of his beloved Sicilians. The Grimms will be immortal, not for their works of erudition, but for their "Household Tales"; so Pitrè's memory will be cherished by all who love Italy and her popular traditions.

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Reviews of Educational Books

EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

The game, if one is a square peg, of not getting into a round hole, or, if a round peg, into a square hole, has enduring fascination. With attention and skill it may be developed into a life work of itself. It is only necessary thoroughly to card-index oneself, and, when thus anatomized, make a card-index of all forms of human activity. The possible combinations resulting are so numerous that while searching for the ideal one it may never be necessary to arrive at a decision at all. The rules of the game are all explained in Gowin and Wheatley's "Occupations" (Ginn; $1.20), which provides copious exercises directing the player to the study of himself and of local conditions as they affect the ordinary occupations.

The square peg that is forced into the round hole of the traditional public-school curriculum, the motor-minded child that dislikes books, is the object of William H. Dooley's solicitude in "The Education of the Ne'er-Do-Well," (Houghton Mifflin; 60 cents net), one of the Riverside Educational Monographs. The little volume is an earnest plea by the principal of a technical high school in a mill town for pre-vocational courses in the grammar school and for continuation schools which shall show a way out for boys and girls who find themselves in "blind-alley jobs," condemned to swell the ranks of unskilled labor. The programmes suggested are concrete and definite to a very high degree.

To the realm of inspirational literature belongs Henry C. Krebs's "Reaching the Children" (A. S. Barnes Co.; 54 cents), a series of brief talks, rich with quotation and exemplary anecdote, on the necessity of making friends with the children.

THE CLASSICS.

GREEK AND LATIN.

Of the two recent Greek additions of the Loeb Library (Putnam) one is the third volume of Professor Perrin's masterly Plutarch, containing the Pericles, Fabius, Nicias, and Crassus, four lives against six in each of its predecessors, and on the whole a better printed book. We have found very few dropped accents in the Greek text and very few details to criticise in the English. We could wish that the standard "towards" was used always for the American "toward," and in the last line of page 249 there is a downright solecism, "for such as *him*"; but in general, whether for some reason in ourselves or for some real change in the work, Professor Perrin's style pleases us even better than it did in the earlier publications. And what a *ενεργέτημα* his work is! Plutarch's Greek is by no means easy, yet he is an author who ought to be read and reread by every Grecian, indeed by every lover of letters. We have been struck again, in going through the Pericles and Fabius, by Plutarch's historical insight in bringing out the contrast between the failure of the Athenian empire and the success of the Roman, due to the fact that in Athens everything depended on individual men, whereas in Rome, though the feeling of subordination to the state was no greater, yet this was supported by the steady power of institutions. It would be hard to find anything in Greek history comparable to Plutarch's story of the aged Fabius subordinating himself to the consulship as represented by his son—"experiri volui, fili," as Livy makes him say, "satin scires consulem te esse." But those are matters for another time. Another difficult task well accomplished, though not without blemishes, is the Marcus Aurelius of C. R. Haines. We note such little things as Rénan (page xi) spelt thus with an accent—a slip not easy to pardon in a scholarly work—the use of a word so badly out of tone as "stereotyped" for "customary," "familiar," and the translation of *φαντασία* by "idea." In some places we do not agree with Mr. Haines's understanding of the text, but this is not the place to discuss such problems.

Of Latin authors we have the first volume of H. Rushton Fairclough's Virgil, embracing the Eclogues, Georgics, and first half of the Æneid. Professor Fairclough has made an excellent and, so far as we have examined, impeccable version, but we have sought in vain, perhaps we should not have expected, any signs that he himself has been adopted by the Muses or is *ingenti percussus amore*. For instance, his rendering of this passage reads as follows:

> But as for me—first above all, may the sweet Muses whose holy emblems, under the spell of a mighty love, I bear, take me to themselves, and show me heaven's pathways, etc.

That is a translation to delight the heart of the laboring schoolboy, and for those generally who wish to read Virgil rapidly and need honest help at a pinch nothing could be better; but it is not inspired. It is unfortunate that the Virgil is typographically the least attractive of the Latin volumes so far printed. Paul Nixon's rendering of Plautus (the volume now issued contains "Amphitryon," "The Comedy of Asses," "The Pot of Gold," "The Two Bacchides," and "The Captives"), where it errs, does so from the very contrary cause. Where Plautus is funny, Professor Nixon will have us roar; where Plautus is extravagant, he will outdo him. We had noted a pretty long list of lines which rather annoyed us in the translation, and at one place we have written on the margin: "P. N. seems here and there to be more familiar with Latin than with English idiom"; but perhaps we were hypercritical and did not allow for the extreme difficulty of finding equivalents for ancient Roman humor. Professor Nixon is lively and inventive. The last work to be noted is Frank Justus Miles's two volumes of Ovid, containing the "Metamorphoses." We began to read critically and were stopped by two questionable translations on the first page: "which state have men called chaos" (relative, not interrogative) is more a German idiom than an English; and further on we queried whether "waxing moon" gives the proper meaning for *crescendo Phœbe*. But as we read on we were more and more impressed by the solid merit of the work.

As a whole, these new voloumes of the Loeb Library show decided improvement in typography and make-up. Naturally, it has been possible to criticise details of the various translators' handicraft, but in view of the large number of scholars called upon to contribute to the series and the magnitude of the task laid on the general editors, we have a profound respect for what has been accomplished.

Dr. James Wilfred Cohoon's Princeton dissertation, "Rhetorical Studies in the Arbitration Scene of Menander's 'Epitrepontes,'" takes its start from Quintilian's warm recommendation of the reading of Menander to the student of oratory. In confirmation of Quintilian's judgment and in confutation of Legrand's opinion that the debate between Daos and Syriskos contains at the most far-off and attenuated echoes of former judicial oratory, Dr. Cohoon develops every argumentative implication into an explicit observance of the principles of Aristotle's rhetorical theory. This involves much ingenuity of verbal criticism and subtlety of psychological analysis which doubtless contributes to the fuller understanding of the text, and to which a carping critic could at the most object that it exhibits something of that nimiety which Coleridge attributed to the German mind and which we may without offence add is sometimes fostered by the dissertation habit.

Dr. Harry Mortimer Hubbell's Yale dissertation on "The Influence of Isocrates on Cicero, Dionysius, and Aristides" is a helpful contribution to the study of a topic which many similar essays would not exhaust. Isocrates does not appeal to the twentieth century. But throughout later antiquity and in the centuries that followed the Renaissance the influence of his smooth, lucid, periodic style and plausible, uninspired common-sense ethics was very great. We cannot delay for the detail of the "parallel passages" by which Dr. Hubbell sustains his thesis. We think that in one point he overestimates the influence of Isocrates upon Cicero. Cicero undoubtedly studied and admired Isocrates, and, like most other ancient orators and rhetoricians, often uses him in the general defence of rhetoric, and even, it may be, in refutation of the attack upon rhetoric in Plato's Gorgias. But there is another Plato whom Dr. Hubbell overlooks, the author of the Phædrus and the Republic. And it is from this Plato rather than from Isocrates that Cicero derived his favorite postulate of the all-round liberal culture required for the formation of the perfect orator. Isocrates, it is true, arrogates in terms the name philosophy for his own ideal of education through rhetoric. But the conjunction of the things Cicero found in Plato. It was in the Phædrus that both Cicero and Plutarch found the typical example of the development of Pericles's oratorical faculty by the philosophy of Anaxagoras. And the education of the guardians in the Republic is the chief source of the idea of a complete all-round education, both for the higher conception of oratory and for the enormous literature on the education of the true king. Dr. Hubbell's statement, then, that "The union of the two forms of education, rhetorical and encyclopædic, was continued in the fourth century by Isocrates" requires qualification. Isocrates undoubtedly asserted that the education of his school was both liberal and philosophic. But in practice he neglected the sophistic and Platonic study of the sciences and maintained that the writing and correcting of speeches and political tracts under his supervision was in itself the most liberal education. This cannot in any fair sense of the word be regarded as the encyclopædic ideal.

Dr. Clarence Augustus Manning's Columbia dissertation, "A Study of Archaism in Euripides," is an entirely creditable doctoral thesis. It has often been observed that in both the structure and diction of his dramas Euripides

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sometimes recurs to the practice of Æschylus or it may be still earlier predecessors. Of late attention has been called to the irony or, as it may also be interpreted, the psychological naturalness of these conservative or archaising tendencies in matters of literary form in the great dramatic prophet of the new thought and unsettling radical criticism of life and tradition. These two ideas Dr. Manning aptly illustrates in specific relation to the structure of the drama, the prologues and epilogues of Euripides, the parodos, the iambic speeches of the chorus, the anapest, the trochaic tetrameter, description, dreams, the religion of Euripides. A useful Euripidean bibliography is appended.

The twenty-seventh volume of Harvard Studies in contrast with its predecessor illustrates the broader, not to say belletristic, type of doctoral dissertation. Under the title "The Doctrine of Literary Forms," Mr. Roy Kenneth Hack makes a violent assault on Professor Saintsbury's enemy, the tradition of literary kinds (*genres*), and traces the evil thing by way of Horace and Cicero to its lair in the philosophy of Plato. To Norden, he says, Horace's "Ars Poetica" is an *eisagogic ars* conforming precisely in its schematism to the rules for that form of didactic treatise or poem. But assign it with Weissenfels to the epistolary genre, and it turns out to be written in a loose conversational style. To this rigid *a priori* method that deduces the qualities of a work of art from its name and place in a fixed traditional classification of "kinds," Mr. Hack would oppose a more flexible study of the essential qualities of the artist and his work as we find them. He further exemplifies the contrasted methods by the analysis of Horatian odes. We entirely sympathize with his protest against the abuse in recent philology of the mechanical application of the doctrine of the conventionalized literary type to the criticism of a concrete work of art. But we think that he errs in associating this so closely as he does with the allied but still distinct question of the romantic revolt against the classic and pseudo-classic doctrine of kinds as a law of literary practice. The pedantry that multiplies superfluous distinctions in philological inquiry need not abolish the observance of indispensable discriminations in the composition and criticism of literature. Matthew Arnold, who was anything but a pedant, made a very sensible plea for the retention in practice and in the terminology of criticism of the four or five chief kinds recognized by the Greeks. To Mr. Hack, however, the whole conception is anathema. And in Cicero's rhetorical works he finds the clue to its origin. Cicero's "Orator," he says, refers to the Platonic ideas. The doctrine of fixed literary kinds is thus proved to have been a special development of the Platonic theory of absolute kinds or types opposed to the flux of phenomena in every domain. There is some confusion of thought here. Cicero's main purpose in the passages cited is to defend by Plato's theory of ideas the attempt to conceive and describe an ideal or perfect orator regardless of the possibility of his realization. However plausible the analogy may appear to us, Cicero is not really attempting to justify the doctrine of literary kinds which he takes for granted as a datum of common-sense. Here, as elsewhere, he employs the Platonic idea for two purposes: (1) to affirm the necessity of basing all arguments on a preliminary definition; (2) to justify the conception of an ideal pattern even if it be unrealizable in practice. Mr. Hack then does not in fact substantiate his historical deduction of the specific doctrine of literary kinds from the Platonic ideas, however plausible such a connection may appear *a priori*. He passes abruptly to a generalized exposition of the Platonic philosophy, a denunciation of Plato's condemnation of poetry, a demonstration that Aristotle's defence in the Poetics rests on essentially the same false presupposition and some final reflections on the pernicious influence in literature and criticism of the entire tradition of fixed kinds or genres. Throughout he seems to confound, as so many have done, the Platonic and Aristotelian *mimesis* or imitation of nature and emotion with the later literary doctrine of the imitation of classical models.

Professor Parker briefly discusses the historic Socrates in the light of Professor Burnet's hypothesis that the Phædo must be presumed to be an historical document. The hypothesis itself is the first thing to discuss. The only evidence ever adduced to prove the Phædo more strictly historical than any other work of Plato's idealizing art is the assumption that Plato "could not have misrepresented his master" on so solemn an occasion. Any intelligent literary student of a few of the chief dialogues is about as competent to pass judgment upon that assumption as is the professional scholar.

The long treatise of Dr. Aristides Evangelus Phoutrides on the chorus of Euripides is composed throughout in the tone of an apologia for Euripides directed against all real or supposed censure of his art in the management of the chorus. Since the chorus occupies on the average 21 per cent. of the plays of Euripides and only 20 per cent. of the plays of Sophocles, there is, the writer argues, at least no quantitative decline of the chorus in the third tragedian. Similarly he shows that there are at least seven or eight plays of Euripides in which the chorus plays quite as active a part as in any drama of Sophocles and Æschylus. If some choruses engage freely in the dialogue, while others are more reticent, plausible reasons can be discovered either in the situation or in the specific character of the chorus. The Phœnician Maidens, *e. g.*, are naturally timid in a strange land. Aristotle's statement that the chorus ought to take part in the action as in Sophocles, not as in Euripides, our author somewhat uncritically parries by alleging what seems to him its inconsistency with Aristotle's praise of Euripides as "most tragic of the poets." In any case, whatever Aristotle may have meant, the choruses of Euripides are not in spirit irrelevant to the situation, as Dr. Phoutrides endeavors to show in many instances. The real clue to the nature of the Euripidean chorus is that it generally represents neither the poet's own opinion nor the ideal spectators, but the sometimes inconsistent opinions and moods of the populace. Guided by this clue, a sympathetic literary and dramatic analysis, the author argues, will generally justify Euripides. In place of the study which we expect of the poetic diction and art of the choruses, the last thirty pages of the dissertation are occupied by a technical discussion of the hyporcheme.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

ENGLISH

Prof. Lewis Worthington Smith's "Mechanism of English Style" (Oxford University Press; $1) seems of exceptional significance, both as the suggestion of a method and as a *long step towards working that method out*. Save now and then by luck, beginners cannot write well—as Stevenson and Franklin knew—unless they "turn sentences over and over until the *rationale* of their form and ordering settles into [their] consciousness as an almost instinctive understanding." In Part I, therefore, Professor Smith sets forth with conciseness and penetration his ideas about structure and style, after which he gives a list of questions to be applied to the selections in Part II. These selections—from De Quincey, Hawthorne, Stevenson, Chesterton, Huneker, and others—are annotated by numbers which refer to certain paragraphs of Part I, and to certain questions in the list just mentioned. Wherever Professor Smith seems unduly mechanical, he is, we think, merely being unusually definite in an ingenious plan to help advanced students to results which, he believes, can be reached only by a path that leads through intelligent drudgery. A solitary student working hard over this book would certainly achieve something; a small advanced class—under a teacher who thoroughly understood the method and believed in it—ought to achieve a great deal. For our hordes of freshmen who need a rough and ready drill in the decencies of writing, and for drilling whom the supply of even fairly competent assistants is precariously small, the book appears too advanced. It is, however, one of the few volumes that seem to us of real assistance in pointing out to sophomores that there are a great many things about writing which they do not yet know.

"Reading, Conversation, Composition," by J. D. Williams (Chicago: Laird & Lee), contains twenty-four short chapters about Tiny Redsquirrel of Squirreltown and his rather too obviously didactic adventures, followed by questions and exercises. The author hopes that "when the pupil has a clear perception of the story which repeated reading will give him, the exercises will be a pleasure and the power to use the grammatical forms and distinctions, which it is desirable he should acquire, will be happily attained." "Graded Language Exercises," from the same author and publisher, is a kind of painless grammar, with selections in prose and verse—some rather Rolloesque, like the one on kites—together with questions and exercises. Some of the terms seem needlessly simplified ("helping words," for example) for pupils who can be expected to change a story so that it will "read more smoothly."

Two admirable volumes are "Essentials of English," by Henry Carr Pearson and Mary Frederika Kirchwey, of the Teachers College, Columbia University (American Book Company). Book I (48 cents), for the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, contains excellent selections, especially the adaptations of folk-tales, and good instructions, questions, and exercises. Book II (68 cents) provides material for the study of grammar and simple composition in the seventh and eighth grades. The instructions are clear, concise, and progressive, and the examples are bits of literature wherever that is possible. Both books are excellently printed and illustrated.

Those whose needs are not entirely satisfied by either a book on the theory of argument or a volume of specimens of argument

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may find help in Prof. C. L. Maxcy's "The Brief, with Selections for Briefing" (Boston: Houghton Mifflin; $1.25 net), which has been prepared in the belief that "the analysis demanded by the process of brief-construction develops in a very high degree careful and logical methods of thought on the part of the student." Professor Maxcy's introduction of some forty pages succeeds in making the brief seem not a device of teachers to increase the difficulty of argument, but a most necessary safeguard for the student. The book is distinctive for its comparative treatment of the legal and the argumentative brief. Specimens of faulty briefing and nearly 250 pages of selections for briefing—including not merely speeches, but five editorials and a religious discourse—complete the book.

James Albert Winans's "Public Speaking" (Ithaca, N.Y.: Sewell Publishing Co.) succeeds in infusing the subject with vitality, now and then to the extent of flippancy. Intended as a practical manual, it interprets practicality broadly and seeks constantly to set the student in the right mental attitude as the indispensable preliminary for anything outward. Being practical, however, it does not fail to give warnings against errors of detail, while keeping the larger things in the foreground. It abounds with anecdote and illustration, and thus is readable as well as instructive. The tone of the text ought to be of value in helping the student to "get inside" the art of making his style the natural product it normally is. The book has as much to say about subject-matter as about presentation; its title is to be taken in its widest meaning. One would know without being told that it had been written by a man of much experience with youthful practitioners.

The "Debaters' Manual," compiled by Edith M. Phelps (New York: H. W. Wilson Co.; $1 net), is made up of selections, suitably arranged, from various publications on argumentation and debating. It is much more concise than the usual book on these matters, but covers the organization and management of debating societies in addition. Its emphasis is all on the practical work of a formal debate.

"University Debaters' Annual, 1914-1915," edited by Edward Charles Mabie (New York: H. W. Wilson Co.; $1.80 net), and "Intercollegiate Debates," Vol. V, edited by Egbert Ray Nichols (New York: Hinds, Noble & Eldredge), are collections of speeches delivered in debates. The first volume contains the affirmative and negative speeches made in contests between Chicago and Dartmouth and Colgate and Ohio Wesleyan. Most of the volume, however, is given over to the affirmative and negative speeches of two debating teams of each of several institutions, the affirmative addresses having been delivered against one opponent and the negative against another. Practically, this does not impair the value of the book, although it avoids the clash of a joined argument. The debates are arranged by topics, which are six: Increase of the army and navy, Monroe Doctrine, minimum wage, Government ownership of telephone and telegraph, Socialistic control of the means of production and exchange, and the single tax. "Intercollegiate Debates" follows the general plan of the book just considered, being made up of affirmative and negative arguments as presented by speakers representing Johns Hopkins, Virginia, North Carolina, Williams, Texas, Trinity, Kansas, and one or two other institutions. In only one debate are the affirmative speeches of one institution and the negative speeches of its opponent given, and in this one they are not presented alternately as delivered. In most instances, we have no more than the affirmative and the negative speeches of two teams representing the same institution in two simultaneous contests. Appendices contain a list of intercollegiate debating organizations, a record of schools which have recently engaged in forensic contests, a table showing the result of debates, arranged by subject, specimen "debate contracts," and a bibliography of books and articles on debating. Bibliographies accompany the speeches also. It is interesting, if not very important, to learn that the negative has won in six of seven debates on compulsory arbitration, in three out of three on Government ownership of telegraphs and telephones, in seven of eleven on intervention in Latin-American republics, and in eight of eleven on the abandonment of the Monroe Doctrine, while the affirmative has been victorious seven times in ten on electing the President for a single term of six years, and twelve times in seventeen on the establishment of a minimum wage by Federal legislation. Debates on Government ownership of railways, an educational test for immigrants, and woman suffrage have been about equally divided in result, although those on the last question have been won by the negative six times out of ten.

Edward Harlan Webster, of the Springfield (Massachusetts) Technical High School, has prepared "English for Business" (Newson & Co.) "to meet the needs of all high schools that aim to prepare pupils for the business of life." The book is crammed with practical advice, information, and exercises, not only on the usual topics, but also on advertising, business letters, after-dinner speeches, and journalism. It is a question whether more might not have been accomplished by taking up fewer matters and dealing more thoroughly with each. We wish the author had been less liberal with such compounds as "composition activities," "revision questions," "speaking ability," and "envelope superscriptions." To use so many of these expressions in such a book is to widen the gulf between "business English" and pure English.

Thirty-eight writers, ranging from Capt. John Smith to Abraham Lincoln, make up the 668 pages of Prof. Walter C. Bronson's "American Prose" (University of Chicago Press; $1.50 net). Irving, Lowell, Hawthorne, and Emerson get fifty or sixty pages each, and lesser prose writers are proportionately represented; most of the selections from nineteenth-century authors are complete; the Puritan period and the eighteenth century fare reasonably well; bibliographies, notes, and indices are made with the care which Professor Bronson's earlier volumes have led us to expect. No one ever finds all his favorites in a single volume of selections, and personally we are sorry to see nothing from Anne Bradstreet, John Wise, or Channing, though we approve the general principle of omitting all except the greater writers in the nineteenth century. We are particularly sorry that no way was found to include any nineteenth-century writings except tales, essays, and orations: American prose without Cooper, with nothing from Hawthorne's romances, and with not a page from Prescott, Motley, or Parkman seems hardly its full self. Whether or not there should have been more criticism is also a question. If Poe could have been represented by three tales and one critical essay, instead of by four tales, the volume would seem to us to have gained in scope. As it is, Lowell's essay on Carlyle is the sole specimen of literary criticism. But the plan of the book is entirely consistent, the volume is sufficiently large, and hardly anything in it could well be spared.

Goldsmith's "Deserted Village" and "The Traveller" and Gray's "Elegy" have been very competently edited by Prof. Louise Pound, of the University of Nebraska (Boston: Ginn; 25 cents). As often in school editions where literary history is rapidly summarized, parts of the introductory matter seem too highly concentrated and too abstract to be digested by immature readers—for example, the generalization (p. xi) that "the social and intellectual ideas of [Goldsmith's time] were on the whole much the same as in the age preceding, that is, critical rather than creative, showing respect for convention, the centring of interest on form, and the exaltation of 'reason' and 'common sense' at the expense of individuality and spontaneity." We imagine that high-school pupils will learn these words without learning what they mean.

"A Selection from Boswell's Johnson," by Max J. Herzberg, of the Central High School, Newark, N. J. (Heath; 40 cents), is a well-made abridgment, the constant purpose of which is to lead readers to the larger work. The editorial apparatus seems adequate for the most part, though it is disturbing to think that high-school pupils, if they remember the note on page 264, will know Joseph Warton as the man who "edited Pope, but in a critical spirit."

The Globe Theatre Shakespeare, an edition designed for high-school students and prepared by Daniel Homer Rich, of the Newark (N. J.) High School (Harper; 35 cents net, each), begins with "The Merchant of Venice" and "Julius Cæsar." There is a good deal of apparatus in the form of question and suggestion intended to be helpful to both teacher and taught. In the introduction, which is virtually identical in the two volumes, generous space is accorded to the description of the Elizabethan stage, and throughout the notes the pupil is encouraged to study the play as acted drama. It is time that some of this material found its way into the secondary schools. Perhaps it is over-late in the day to speak of the pirated 1619 quarto of "The Merchant of Venice" as the "first or Roberts quarto of 1600."

"America First," by Jasper L. McBrien (American Book Company), is a collection of patriotic readings, in prose and verse. The material is better than the tawdry frontispiece would lead one to expect.

M. Grant Daniell's edition of Macaulay's "Lays and Ballads" (Ginn; 30 cents) has been reissued in the Standard English Classics. Among children's readers may be noted a series of poetry-books, first, second, and third, selected by Emily Kip Baker (American Book

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Company). The texts are presented without apparatus of any kind. There is good stuff in them.

"The Common School Spelling Book," by Frances Squire Potter (J. D. Williams & Co.), offers more than mere lists of words. Its materials are judiciously related to phonetics and to linguistic history, and it offers all sorts of suggestions (almost too many, at times) to the class and its teacher. It is remarkably free from unreal pronunciations: *waistcoat* is an exception, but this, perhaps, is only a literary word in America. The material is so arranged that there is plenty of opportunity for the student to see and hear the word in a natural context.

The specialized reader continues to multiply. We now have "A City Reader for the Fourth Year," by Abby Leland Porter (Charles E. Merrill Co.; 50 cents), in which the birds and the bees and the bunnies are duly subordinated to Peter Stuyvesant, the Hudson Tube, and the school garden. Some of the pictures are charming.

Students will find Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, third edition, which has just come to us from the press of G. & C. Merriam Co., Springfield, Mass., a handy and useful volume. It is not a revision of the earlier Collegiate editions, but is an abridgment of Webster's International. It is issued on thin paper, and, according to the finish, may be procured at a price ranging from $3.50 to $6.

FRENCH.

In "French Verse of the Sixteenth Century" (Heath; 70 cents), Prof. C. H. C. Wright has followed his selections from Montaigne with a brief anthology of sixteenth-century French poetry: fourteen poets, from Clément Marot to Desportes, being represented in delightful extracts. Among the notes the brief critical notices of each of the poets are especially useful. Students of this period of French literature will feel under renewed obligations to Professor Wright for this valuable handbook.

Roux's "Elementary French Reader" (Macmillan; 50 cents) presents a carefully chosen series of simple prose selections, with a few poems at the end, intended to be memorized. To furnish material for conversation, ample *questionnaires* are provided for each extract. Before the vocabulary, into which the notes have been incorporated, are placed extensive tables of regular and irregular verbs. Some illustrations, including views of Paris, add to the attractiveness of the book.

As indicated by its sub-title, "A Trip to Paris," Moritz Levi's "French Composition" (Holt; 75 cents) follows the current fashion in books of this kind—that of basing exercises in composition on passages in French consisting largely of hotel, restaurant, and shop talk *in usum innocentium*. The passages in English to be translated are on the pages opposite the French model passages, which have evidently been prepared with considerable care. Questions in English, for practice in conversation, are put at the bottom of the pages, and the notes for the aid of the student in translating are so copious that the teacher need not hesitate to go at a rapid rate.

ITALIAN.

The list of textbooks for the slowly increasing number of students of Italian in this country is gradually lengthening. The latest one, under the title "Due Commedie Moderne" (Ginn; 40 cents), includes the one-act comedies, "O Bere o Affogare," by Leo di Castelnovo (Leopoldo Pullè), and "Lumie di Sicilia," by Luigi Pirandello, edited by Emilio Goggio, of the University of California. In the first of the comedies a highly improbable theme is spiritedly, if a little conventionally, developed. In the second and better comedy an element of seriousness gradually prevails over the earlier comic mood, until the curtain falls on a scene that, in spite of occasional light touches, would hardly be out of place in drama. The editor has furnished notes in which he has sought particularly to give appropriate English equivalents for Italian colloquialisms. A vocabulary is provided.

GERMAN.

"Des Kindes erstes Lesebuch," by Karen Monrad Jones (Heath; 35 cents), is designed as an introductory reader for young children learning German by the conversational method. The author's preface asserts for the reader four distinctive features, which an examination of the text seems amply to bear out: a very small and oft-repeated vocabulary; extreme simplicity of grammatical construction; exercises in grammatical drill in each lesson without rule or explanation; the use of copious illustrations to furnish material for conversation. The general appearance of the reader and the selections chosen can hardly fail to engage the interest of small children.

"Zweites Aufsatzbuch: nach der direkten Methode," by Prof. Bruno Boezinger, of Leland Stanford University (Henry Holt), is intended for the more advanced students of German in school or college. The thirty-six lessons into which the book is divided follow a uniform plan: a standard German poem furnishes the reading material, following which are questions on the subject-matter, grammatical and syntactical drill, and suggestions for oral or written composition. The use of English is rigidly excluded from all parts of the book except the vocabulary.

"Geschichte und Sage," by Anna T. Gronow (Ginn; 90 cents), is a combination of reader and grammar intended for use in the second year in high schools. The reading matter, which is freely illustrated, touches upon important facts in German history and literature. Though the grammatical exercises and paradigms receive a secondary place, it was the author's purpose to make them complete enough to answer all the requirements of the second-year pupil. The English exercises are based on the German text, and to insure the careful scrutiny of the latter the author has wisely refrained from adding a vocabulary. The reading selections are designed for the systematic teaching of German vocabulary. Words are frequently repeated in the text, lists of synonyms and opposites are given, and much attention is paid to the formation of words. This feature of the book appears to be skilfuly constructed, whatever misgivings one may have in general about the dilution of style and mixing of functions in "popular" readers of this sort.

A similar mixture of grammar and reader, but this time with the grammatical part stressed, is to be found in Paul Valentine Bacon's "A New German Grammar for Beginners" (Allyn & Bacon; $1.25). The reading matter, with the inevitable illustrations, is taken from the author's well-known text, "Vorwärts." The aim of the grammar is to be practical and simple. Conversational work —alleged, very questionably, to be the most *practical* phase of German study—is a special feature of every lesson. A colored map of Germany and several German songs with musical notes give additional variety to the text. This tendency of the average modern book on elementary German to make itself an *omnium gatherum* is further exemplified by short chapters on phonetics and on Grimm's law, both of which might better have been dispensed with as too fragmentary for practical value.

"Goethe's Poems," by Prof. Martin Schütze, of the University of Chicago (Ginn; 75 cents), is the third good edition on the American market. It differs from the two previous editions in not following the chronological order with its obvious disadvantage of presenting the immature poems first and thereby dulling the initial enjoyment of the reader. Professor Schütze's arrangement is entirely his own. He has divided his collection into three main groups—"Songs," "Poems," and "Sprüche"—each group in turn being variously subdivided. The second ambiguously named group contains narrative poems, odes, and certain of the more philosophical poems. Having regard to the preëminence of Goethe in the pure lyric, the songs naturally occupy not only the most conspicuous place, but also the largest space. At the head of them are "the twelve greatest songs," by means of which the reader is introduced at once to what is both the best and the most readily appreciated. This approach is so good that one can only wonder that it has not been devised before. The term "song" is very properly interpreted in a wide enough sense to include popular ballads like "Der Sänger." The introduction, which discusses the development of Goethe's art and view of life in his lyric poetry, amply restores the necessary chronological perspective. The notes are particularly commendable in calling attention in an unobtrusive and finely discriminating way to the varying qualities of the poems. The editor has the advantage here in being something of a poet himself. The question of selection must, of course, remain an individual one. It is a little surprising, however, to note the total omission of the "Roman Elegies" as well as of certain of Goethe's better-known short pantheistic utterances, which latter might well have been included among the philosophical poems.

To the average person of education Herder is a man of letters, a precursor of romanticism, a developer of the historical method of criticism, and the like. J. Mace Andress, of the Boston Normal School, has chosen to bring out a neglected aspect of his genius in a monograph entitled "Johann Gottfried Herder as an Educator" (Stechert; $1.25). Herder has been virtually neglected by writers on the history of education. Yet it is hardly too much to say that he was fundamentally nothing but an educator. It is true that he produced no pedagogic masterpiece like "Emile" or "Leonard and Gertrude," and that his writings on education, which fill 600 pages of the standard edition of his works, are couched in a rather crabbed style. But Herder was not only a practical pedagogue, teaching or supervising schools for nearly forty years; he was also the propounder of many new and fruitful ideas in education. Mr. Andress does not

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hesitate to speak of him as anticipating the present pragmatic-humanistic trend of thought by reason of his constant assertion of *Humanität* as the goal and *Uebung* as the method of education. Herder has also left his mark on the educational system of Germany: he is the founder of the new humanistic Gymnasium, where the classics are taught with reference to modern culture. A common-sense practicality would seem to be the key-note of his ideas on education. This accounts for much of his contempt for Basedow, as the author points out. He might have added that it saved Herder from some of the extravagances of Rousseau, to whom most fads in modern education are indirectly attributable. Mr. Andress has, for instance, noted Herder's conviction that "learning is serious business and cannot be accomplished through play and in an easy way, but only through work" (p. 151). There is an outline narrative of Herder's life in the early chapters and some discussion of his general significance in the latter part of the book, so that the picture is fairly complete. The author writes with considerable enthusiasm in a slightly colloquial style. The spelling of foreign titles in the bibliography at the back of the book needs revision.

AFGHANISTAN.

Afghanistan is a buffer state. Buffer states are always a factor before war times, and may become doubly so when war is over. For that reason, a grammar ("Pashtu, Part I: Persian and Indian Elements in the Modern Language of Southern Afghanistan"; Oxford University Press) of the language of Southern Afghanistan may some day have possibly a greater importance than can just now be foreseen. In any event, it may be said that the best linguistic contribution regarding that phase of speech on the Indian frontier is the one here noticed. The author, Major Lorimer, holds a political office in India; and his long experience as a military commander in connection with the famous Khaibar Pass, the gateway to India, combined with his English philological training, makes his volume one of importance for future use. The work of his predecessors, Dr. Trumpp, Major Raferty, and others, in this special field of research, is well known to scholars. But Major Lorimer has brought more into prominence the colloquial element in Southern Afghanistan, and has emphasized certain mergings of Persian and Indian elements in the modern vernacular, particularly as to syntax. All this is well; and between the lines the trained eye of the student can see many interesting philological problems yet to solve. The chapters are clean cut. The admirable English-Pashtu index, of more than a hundred pages, supplies in a way the place of a dictionary, and shows the collaborating hand of Major Lorimer's wife, as he has gratefully acknowledged in the Preface. For the specialized field which the book covers, this volume, relating to a borderland language important in history, is to be commended to favorable consideration.

HISTORY.

EUROPEAN.

Those persons who have not time to read much detailed history, but who want a good accurate background for understanding the Great War, can scarcely do better than read Sydney Herbert's "Modern Europe, 1789-1914" (Macmillan; $1). It is crisp, clear, and skilfully proportioned and arranged. In the first fifty pages the author shows how the great French ideas of liberty, democracy, and nationality arose and spread, and how they helped Napoleon's rise and fall. He then explains, as fully as is possible within the brief remaining space of two hundred pages, how the internal histories of the various European states since 1815 have affected their external relations, and how these in turn have influenced domestic development. He recognizes properly the importance of Imperialism and International Socialism as factors in the historical development of the period. Incidentally he gives expression to much sound political philosophy. That he follows quite closely some of the best chapters in Lavisse and Rambaud's excellent "Histoire Générale" is a partial explanation of his successful condensation of a vast subject. His bibliography, however, neglects some of the best and most recent books.

"A Short History of Germany," by Ernest F. Henderson, which was first published fourteen years ago, has maintained itself steadily as a useful and readable compendium in spite of certain manifest faults of proportion and style. A new edition which has recently been issued (Macmillan; two volumes, $3.50 net) brings the narrative down to the outbreak of the present war. The original portion of the work has apparently not been touched by revision. Not even verbal changes have been made. One notes still, for example, the incorrect "flown" for "flowed" in Vol. II, page 391. The added matter, covering some 130 pages, is divided into three chapters. In the first of these the political development of Germany from 1871 to 1914 is traced; the two remaining chapters are devoted to economic and social progress during the same period. It is gratifying to observe that the author's well-known Prussian sympathies and his admiration for German institutions and their efficient working have not led him into special pleading. His discussion of events leading up to the war is wholly objective, so far as it goes. The conflict is represented as the inevitable clash of rival armaments rather than as the result of the assertion of the will to power by any individuals or groups. Mr. Henderson's greatest enthusiasm is rightly bestowed on certain modern developments in Germany's educational system. A slight inaccuracy occurs on page 493 of Vol. II. The Social Democrats, instead of polling "nearly four million votes" in 1912, actually polled four and a quarter million. The bold statement in the preface to the new edition that Germany attracts "nearly a million foreigners yearly" is likely to be misleading unless interpreted in connection with the "seasonal workmen" described later.

No one, not even those who before the Great War were inclined to talk of the French as a decadent people, will any longer dissent from Napoleon's dictum: "France will always be a great nation." What is the explanation of the magnificent national spirit, the calm courage, and the patient determination which have won for the French the admiration of onlooking neutrals and which must ultimately bring victory? It is not to be satisfactorily found in any of the brief formulas on the "souls of the Allies" which have been hastily cobbled together since the war. It must be found in a renewed study of French history. For the present strikes its roots deeply into the past. But if any one seeks in English for general histories of France, the offering is meagre. The translations of Guizot, Michelet, and Duruy which delighted our fathers are hopelessly antiquated. Kitchin, who comes only to 1793, never set the Thames on fire. Jervis, Hassall, G. B. Adams, good enough as manuals, are only outlines. The new Funck-Brentano is excellent, but only one volume of the English translation has appeared (cf. the *Nation*, July 6, p. 14), and, being a coöperative work, is likely to have the defects of its qualities.

We therefore welcome J. R. Moreton Macdonald's three-volume "History of France" (Macmillan; $6), because it fills a real need and because it has merits of its own. Though he dates his preface, "Hôpital Temporaire, Haute Marne," he wrote the main work in the quiet library of a peaceful Scotch country estate. It was in press "before any one dreamt that we should be standing beside our traditional enemy on the very battlefields where we have so often confronted her." It is free (except in the preface) from any hysterical or mental warping effects of the war. It betrays, in fact, a conservative Britisher's dislike of much of the radicalism of the French Revolution, and even of Baron Hausmann's "ghastly transformation" (I, 208) of Paris. His roseate picture of the Middle Ages and his omission of any account of the Third Republic also suggest the *laudator temporis acti*. He is old-fashioned enough, we are glad to note, to give a considerable amount of military history. By his knowledge of military technique and his skill in narrative he is able to make campaigns clear even in a few paragraphs, notably in the case of the Napoleonic and Franco-Prussian wars. Yet he also is fairly adequate in his description of French institutions and their development. As a canny Scotch landlord, with a practical eye for present agricultural problems and with a good historical imagination, he takes his reader through the fourth-century Gallo-Roman villa of an imaginary but typical "Antonius." For the thirteenth century he describes, by way of comparison, the no less interesting agricultural arrangements on a feudal manor; here he does not have to invent an imaginary manorial lord; he is lucky enough to have the full records of Thierri d'Hireçon.

The author sums up well the significance of a statesman or a period. His style is brisk, at times almost overstepping the bounds of good taste. For his material he has studied the works of the best French specialists, and even read some of the documents. But he still leans heavily, and is wise in so doing, on the admirable "Histoire de France," of which M. Lavisse was the editor and the inspiration. His selective bibliographies for each chapter indicate the best French authorities, but make no reference to valuable ones in German nor to some of the most convenient ones in English. The great defect of his work is one which it is not impossible to remedy at a second printing. His volumes are marred by misprints, wrong dates, and some errors of fact. An unusually detailed index, it may be added, makes convenient their use as a work of reference. Mr. Macdonald closes with the Treaty of Frankfort in 1871.

For the "History of the Third French Republic" one may turn to a volume by Prof. C.

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H. C. Wright (Houghton Mifflin; $1.50 net). This is a brief, straightforward, and accurate chronicle of Presidential Administrations and events from July, 1870, to August, 1914. Otherwise it has no particular distinction. The author wisely gives his attention mainly to the great domestic problems—republican and party government, Panama, Dreyfus, and Church and State—rather than to the complexities of foreign relations.

The deserved popularity of J. G. Lockhart's "History of Napoleon Buonaparte" is evidenced by a new, well-printed two-shilling edition (Oxford University Press). Lockhart's history was first published anonymously in 1829 soon after the author became the editor of the *Quarterly Review*. It was a modest corollary to Sir Walter Scott's more pretentious biography. Like Scott, Lockhart wrote from the Tory point of view, but with much less bias and violence against "Buonaparte" and the French nation. While relying largely on Scott, he also made use of the abundant St. Helena material with which the exiled Emperor was attempting to create for himself and his family a more favorable judgment from posterity. But as Lockhart was unable to use any of the great collections of Napoleon's letters, the Wellington dispatches, and a mass of other documentary material which has since been published, his work contains many inaccuracies. Some of these are pointed out in a brief introduction by the Bonapartist scholar, J. H. Rose. Lockhart himself, as he admitted in a closing paragraph, was quite aware that he was not far enough from Bonaparte to estimate the effects of his career. No one would go to his volume nowadays, either, for an account of the Napoleonic reforms and administration which form his most abiding title to fame. But his biography is still worth reading for its terse and graceful style and for the incidents of a personal or humorous kind which agreeably diversify the facts and figures of his narrative.

AMERICAN.

No man has ever enjoyed such admiration and popularity in a land not the land of his birth as has Lafayette in America. He was scarcely more than a boy when he landed in South Carolina. But with his brilliant fortune, with the glamour of social distinction, with real military talents, and with an unshakable love of liberty he soon won prominence among the colonists and materially helped in the establishment of a new and free commonwealth on this side of the Atlantic. The excellent little biography of him by Martha Foote Crow is properly included in the series of True Stories of Great Americans (Macmillan; 50 cents). The author writes interestingly and vividly of his early life in France, his friendship with Washington, his services at Yorktown, and the triumphal tour which the aged hero made in America in 1824. Particularly well done is her account of the less known attempt of the young South Carolinian, F. K. Huger, to rescue Lafayette from his prison at Olmütz. Of her hero's rigid adherence to principle and of his resulting failures in France the author says little or nothing. It is of Lafayette the American, not the Frenchman, that she writes. She appropriately closes her attractive volume with a photograph of the Lafayette statue by Paul Wayland Bartlett, given from the savings of five million American school children, and set up in 1908 in the court of the Louvre on a spot once intended for a statue of Napoleon.

For nearly a half-century after the American Revolution the British continued the territorial aggression which they had long been making in Central America. Yet the United States took, curiously enough, no umbrage at this—at first. We boldly uttered the Monroe Doctrine, but did not at that time think of applying it to the British on the Mosquito Coast. Canning, however, whose share in the origin of the Monroe Doctrine has often been exaggerated, was decidedly taken aback by the paragraph in which President Monroe declared that the American continents were not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European Powers. Thenceforth the British began to be suspicious of the United States as the protectress of Central America. At the same time the people of the United States soon began to awake to the importance of Central American relations and to the possibility of constructing a canal across the isthmus. This interest was greatly stimulated by the results of the Mexican War, by the discovery of gold in California, and by the rapid growth and westward movement of our population. "Manifest destiny" began to demand that the canal should be built and controlled by Americans. No one at that time seriously considered the Panama route, and Britain blocked the route projected through Nicaragua. By her Mosquito protectorate she controlled Greytown, at the eastern terminus of the proposed canal; in 1849 she forcibly seized Tigre Island, which commanded the western terminus, in spite of the fact that the island had just been ceded by Honduras to the United States. To settle this conflict with England the clever Sir Henry Bulwer obtained from the nervous Clayton the famous treaty of 1850 which bears their names. The story of the negotiations which led to it and of all the diplomatic wranglings which arose out of its uncertain meaning is authoritatively told by Mary W. Williams in "Anglo-American Isthmian Diplomacy, 1815-1915" (American Historical Association Prize Essay). She has used extensively unpublished British state papers down to 1861, and is thus able to give a very full, accurate, and unbiassed account of this source of friction between England and the United States, which led to talk of war in 1856 and was a constant irritant for half a century.

In "Real Stories from Our History" (Ginn; 60 cents), Mr. John T. Faris has prepared for young pupils a series of picturesque stories which explain very well a number of phases of the social history of our country. They can be used successfully as supplementary reading to a textbook in American history, or as an exercise in oral reading. The suggestion comes from the well-known report of the Committee of Eight on the Study of History in the Elementary Schools, in which it is urged that children should be taught typical events in a way which appeals to the feelings. The stories here retold relate to many kinds of actions. Some deal with the conditions of living in colonial times, others with means of travel, while pioneer experiences, conditions in the inns, the achievements of inventors, the discovery of gold, and the growth of railways are also treated. The stories are generally based on well accredited writings, as John Winthrop's "Journal" and Bradford's "History of Plymouth"; or they are built upon the basis of some authentic work. For the purpose indicated, the book is well done and will be found useful.

In the State of New York attempts are being made to introduce the study of State history into the schools. One of the results of this laudable movement is "The History of the State of New York," by Charles F. Horne (Heath; $1.20), with an introduction by James Austin Holden, State historian. Mr. Holden stresses State pride, and seems to think that the children should be taught in what ways their own State excels other States. For example, he believes that the American Revolution really began in New York, because blood ran in the riot on Golden Hill, January 18 and 19, 1770, six weeks before the "Boston massacre." Fortunately, Mr. Horne has had a worthier purpose. He has succeeded in writing a lively and clear story of the most striking events in New York's history before 1815. It is true that he undertakes to describe the course of history down to the present date; but he gives very inadequate space to this latter part. About one-seventh of his 425 pages go to the period following 1815, and only 24 pages are allotted to the development of the story from 1865 to 1915. For the earlier period the book is adequate, but if a chief object of teaching local history is to give the youths some idea of the progress of political affairs so that they may be better equipped for citizenship, the book should contain a larger and less timid presentation of recent history. It is very well to teach New York children about the Zenger trial and the causes of the Revolution; but why omit a description of the long fight against corruption, and why describe the impeachment of Sulzer without mentioning the name of Murphy? In fact, the index contains the names of John Jay, Sir William Johnson and many Livingstons; but it has no reference to Richard Croker, Edward Murphy, Gov. Odell, and William A. Barnes, while the brief allusions to Thomas C. Platt are quite colorless. It is not too much to ask that recent State history shall be presented in such a way that the reader can understand what was the real problem of the voter in deciding to which candidate he should give his vote.

ECONOMICS.

Discussions of the nature and prevention of poverty have in recent years again come to the fore and have claimed the attention of economists and social philosophers. While the most important writing on the subject has been characterized by a healthy optimism as to the possibility of preventing poverty, much difference of opinion exists with regard to the methods to be employed. Thus, for Professor Hollander, social insurance, a statutory minimum wage, and collective bargaining constitute the most significant preventive measures. In his "Essays in Social Justice," Professor Carver, on the other hand, seeks the remedy in a restriction of population and more adequate methods of industrial education; whereas Mr. Hartley Withers finds the solution in the prevention of wasteful expenditure. "Poverty and Social Progress," by Maurice Parmelee (Macmillan; $1.75), surveys a much wider field. Poverty is here regarded as a resultant not only of economic forces but of a complex of interacting and interdependent biological, economic, and socio-political factors. Accordingly the causes of pov-

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erty are classified into the "pathological characteristics of body and mind," the "normal characteristics of individuals which have not become adapted to social life," and finally the purely economic causes. In this part of the book every possible cause of poverty from epilepsy to industrial disputes receives at least brief mention. Similarly, in the sections devoted to prevention, the author runs the whole gamut of preventive measures; making a running commentary upon such questions as social insurance, taxation, over-population, collectivism, industrial democracy, eugenics, and a score of others.

The book is marred throughout by a lack of discrimination and critical examination in the use of much of the statistical material which constitutes a large and important part of the work. For example, the discussion of child labor in the United States (p. 138) takes no account of the large error reported by the census in returning children engaged in agricultural pursuits. Elsewhere (p. 71), on the basis of wage statistics of most doubtful value, the author obtains results that should have immediately discredited both the material and the method. In spite of the fact that reference is made to Beveridge's admirable study of unemployment, a large amount of unemployment is ascribed to the fact that "there may be a larger supply of labor than society can utilize productively" (p. 145). Other of his problems, which are of great intricacy, the author attacks with an air of confidence that his results hardly justify. At the beginning of the chapter on Population and Poverty, for instance, it is announced that "it is easy to place the minimum and maximum limits for population." How easy the problem was is indicated by the conclusions which the author himself later rather mildly characterizes as "vague" (p. 176), and which from a practical standpoint are useless. As a statement of the various aspects of poverty, the book represents an uncritical epitome of much that is both more completely and more carefully stated elsewhere. Its sole service consists in affirming the now current opinion that a large part of poverty is preventable.

"The Port of Boston," by Edwin J. Clapp (Yale University Press; $2.50 net), is an exhaustive analysis of the numerous factors that are responsible for the development of seaports. The book is an outgrowth of a report by Professor Clapp to the directors of the port of Boston on the traffic situation in Boston. While the treatment is in the main concerned with problems peculiar to the port of Boston, extensive comparative data dealing with the more important American and continental seaports are here collected. With a view to determining how the growth of the port of Boston can be stimulated, detailed consideration is given to rate differentials, the development of coastwise traffic, the relation between passenger and freight traffic, the advertisement of a port, and improvements in operation. Convincing evidence is adduced of the harmful effect on Boston due to the operation of rate differentials in favor of Philadelphia and Baltimore on freight between the West and the Atlantic ports. Of great importance from the standpoint of public policy is the discussion of the operation and control of the port in which the superiority of a public over the present mixed ownership of the waterfront is clearly indicated. As an investigation into conditions of a most complex nature, the book is in every way satisfactory and should serve as a model for that kind of economic research.

SOCIOLOGY.

In "The Function of Socialization in Social Evolution" (University of Chicago Press; $1.25 net), E. W. Burgess develops the thesis that "socialization, rather than either geography or heredity, is the dominant factor in social evolution." The evolution of technique in invention in a "function of socialization," *i. e.*, "the participation of the person in the thinking, feeling, and action of the group, is indispensable to discovery and invention." This proposition, rather self-evident except for its terminology, is profusely illustrated. Proceeding, the author illustrates from the history of the English people "the participation of wider groups in the developing sentiment, knowledge, and activity of a nation: this survey demonstrated that socialization plays an essential rôle in social evolution." Then comes "the socialization of the individual, in the sense of the all-round participation of the person in the knowledge, in the feeling, and in the activity of the group," which "is necessary for the fullest personal development and for social progress." Here we have discussed the cognitive, affective, and volitional aspects of socialization. This book was inspired, apparently, by the teaching and works of Professor Small. It contains a considerable number of facts and extracts that have their interest, in which respect they somewhat differ from the whole to which they contribute. Probably any student of human society would subscribe offhand to the propositions which the author sets out to defend, though he might not understand, or care to follow up, the coursings of exposition and vocabulary which lead to the final triumphant Q. E. D.

Rowe's "Society, its Origin and Development" (Scribner; $1.50) aims at "a simple, untechnical treatment of human society," wherein the author "writes with the undergraduate continually in mind, trying to see through his eyes and to think with his mind." The undergraduate, we infer, is pretty juvenile; a number of the illustrations are trivial, and rather fully and conversationally elaborated at that. Some little attention is accorded to social evolution and theory, but the bulk of the book is description and comment about present-day conditions. We hear of the social life of the rural community, the city, and the nation; and especially do we contemplate schemes for its betterment. The tone of the volume is wholesome, and not over-hortatory for its type. It contains a good deal of trustworthy information and a number of sound and "safe" judgments. It should be useful where it is not desired to go much beneath the surface of things. But the title and sub-title are somewhat over weight for the treatment. The style is clear and simple.

Professor Gillette contributes "Sociology" to the National Social Science series, edited by President McVey (Chicago: McClurg; 50 cents net). "Sociology," says the author, "is liable to be identified with slumming, charity and philanthropy, empty observations of public spectacles, socialism, and kindred phenomena." This being the case, "there is some justification for a small volume on sociology which the public generally may read, and perhaps study clubs and secondary schools may use as a guide." With the idea of introducing sociology into secondary schools we do not find ourselves in sympathy; but Professor Gillette's book is well suited to the alternative purposes. It is just the sort of simple and brief manual to awaken interest in the casual reader. This booklet might well have been a popular lecture, in the better sense of that term, upon the nature and content of sociology. The tone is impartial and judicial, and the several parts of the exposition fit together well. If it is worth while to write books of this kind at all—and we think it is—it is difficult to withhold praise from the present specimen. And, because of its brevity and simplicity, it may serve yet another purpose, partially adumbrated by our author. "They tell me you teach at Weissnichtwo, Professor," says a casual summer acquaintance. "What is your line?" "It is sociology," murmurs the poor soul addressed, apprehensively. "Ah!" is the stock reply, "that's most interesting. Let's see; just how would you define sociology?" And what can one say in five minutes on this topic? And how explain away his lack of experience in building model tenements, investigating the milk supply, and the like? It would be worth the price of this book to be able to hand out a copy of it as a reply adequate to the occasion.

RELIGION.

No better guide to the understanding of old Hebrew thought, especially for colleges and schools, can be found than Prof. I. J. Peritz's "Old Testament History" (Abingdon Press; $1.50). Critically broad and sound, and in perfect sympathy with the higher ideals of the Old Testament, Dr. Peritz has produced a book which is both learned and readable. He goes into detail sufficiently to give the reasons for his statements and to clothe his narrative with life. He is always clear and never dull. Within the modest limits assigned him he has succeeded in setting forth the main features and the chief turning-points of the Hebrew history. The volume is not specifically a history of the Israelite religion, but it necessarily contains many references to religious ideas.

ARCHITECTURE.

Mr. Edward Bell's little volume entitled "The Architecture of Ancient Egypt. A Historical Outline" (Macmillan; $2 net) endeavors to fill a sorely felt need in the history of architecture. The author has made a creditable effort to cover a field competence in which involves a vast amount of labor and an acquaintance with materials often not published at all, or if accessible in published form, quite inadequately presented. The pitfalls into which the author has slipped, therefore, are doubtless unavoidable if such a work is to be undertaken by the general student of architecture on the basis of the current treatises. One cannot but regret that so intelligent an architect as the author evidently is should have subjected himself to the difficulties mentioned. In one or two cases a whole body of important material has escaped him—for example, in his treatment of the obelisks he seems unaware of the existence of the huge obelisks, the earliest known, which rose in the holy place of each Sun temple in the Fifth Dynasty; nor does he speak of these Sun temples in his discussion of temple architecture.

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The old standard treatises on the history of architecture are of course long since out of date, and in the meantime Mr. Bell's volume will hardly serve to fill the serious gap which the student of architecture must continue to meet until some very competent archæologist, like Borchardt, has given us a careful history of Egyptian architecture. Meantime it is unfortunate that some of the most fundamental facts in the history of architecture are still unknown to the current histories of art. For example, it is now perfectly clear that the colonnade, the court surrounded by colonnaded porches, and likewise the clerestory, arose in Egypt in the third millennium B. C., and passed thence to Europe and Asia. In the matter of the colonnade Mr. Bell seems to have been conscious, even if somewhat vaguely, that the ancient world owed it to Egypt. But his Index does not even contain the word "clerestory," nor does he anywhere refer to it.

SCIENCE.

GENERAL SCIENCE.

A great amount of trustworthy information has been brought together and compressed by Mr. Lewis Elhuff, of the Westinghouse High School, Pittsburgh, Pa., in his "General Science, First Course" (Heath; $1.20). The preface states, "This book is intended to offer a scientific explanation for the many and varied experiences which pupils of high-school age have had, and to create a desire for further knowledge of scientific subjects." That the range of subjects is wide and varied can be seen by glancing at a single letter in the index: Tapeworm, Tea, Telegraph, Telephone, Temperature, Theine, Theobromine, Thermometers, Thermos bottle, Tinder, Toad, Tobacco, etc. The range is wider than is authorized by judicious pedagogy. But this is not the most serious defect. The author has set exercises for his pupils which they cannot possibly undertake. Thus on page 236 we find these questions asked, not of trained officials of our boards of health, but of high-school pupils: (1) What is the source of water for your home? Is it free from typhoid or other germs? (2) Make a careful study of the water supply of your town or city in order to learn if any dangerous chemicals or disease-germs are in it. These two questions demand for their answer a modern biological and chemical laboratory. It is absurd to ask them of high-school pupils. The author has clearness of exposition and is extremely careful in his statements, but he has placed a large part of his book beyond the reach of high schools.

MATHEMATICS.

Messrs. Betz and Webb, with the editorial cooperation of Prof. P. F. Smith, have produced a "Plane and Solid Geometry" (Ginn & Co.) that has several notable features. Formal demonstrations are preceded by informal discussions and exercises designed to discipline the imagination and to give familiarity with cardinal ideas and terms; in respect of logic, the way pursued passes between those who demand too much and those who are content with too little rigor; and good judgment has been employed in the selection of matter and in the distribution of emphasis.

The "Community Arithmetic" (American Book Co.; 60 cents), by Mr. Brenelle Hunt, is commendable on account of the large number of applications it makes of arithmetical processes to the various industries carried on in any representative community. The subject is regarded, not as a science, but as a practical art or as a tool. Very similar, though less concrete in the earlier portion, is the "Modern Business Arithmetic" (Henry Holt & Co.), by Messrs. Finney and Brown. Both of the books are careful in explaining sufficiently the nature of a given business or industry before presenting applications of theory to its practical problems. Resembling the above-mentioned books in spirit, but much more advanced in point of content, is Professor Skinner's "Mathematical Theory of Investment" (Ginn; 36 cents). Its reading presupposes the usual freshman course in algebra. The earlier part, devoted to reviewing the required algebra and to the theory of interest, is followed by applications to such financial problems as the amortization of debts, bond values, sinking funds, depreciation, evaluation of mining properties, and the adjustment of rates of public utilities. The valuable tables contained in the work are obtainable also in the form of a separate, bound volume.

PHYSICS.

Claude Bragdon's little book, entitled "Four Dimensional Vistas" (Knopf; $1.25), should command attention, since Mr. Bragdon's publisher tells us that he is an architect and teacher of æsthetics, a man preoccupied with religion and ethics, a master of literary style; and, lastly, judging from the ease with which he reconciles the irreconcilable, a pundit in theosophy and science. But his most notable trait is inability to distinguish between words and facts, and between vague desires and actual circumstances. His ambition scorns to limit itself to things bounded by space of three dimensions, and his actions follow in that pleasant sequence which he calls *curved* time. Those who yearn for four dimensions and curved time, in order that they may be emancipated, will be comforted by knowing that such a state will be much better than our common lot. Mr. Bragdon has discovered:

> These two ideas, of curved time and higher space, by their very nature are bound to profoundly modify human thought. They loosen the bonds within which advancing knowledge has increasingly labored, they lighten the dark abysses of consciousness, they reconcile the discoveries of Western workers with the inspirations of Eastern dreamers; but best of all, they open vistas, they offer "glimpses that may make us less forlorn."

Verily, we wish this old world would swim into such a region; for under existing circumstances this all means nothing. We may be sure that Mr. Bragdon, the architect, still builds three dimensional houses, in spite of his brave words; and that it is Mr. Bragdon, the master of literary style, who writes in one of his æsthetical moods. On the first page, the author tells us how to prepare our minds:

> Expectancy of freedom is the dominant note of to-day. Amid the crash of armies and the clash of systems we await some liberating stroke which shall release us from the old dreary thraldoms. . . . Should a name be demanded for this home of freedom, there are those who would unhesitatingly call it *The Fourth Dimension of Space.* For such readers as may be ignorant of the amazing content of this seemingly meaningless phrase, any summary attempt at enlightenment will lead only to deeper mystification. To the question, where and what is the fourth dimension, the answer must be, it is here—in us, and all about us—in a direction toward which we can never point because at right-angles to all the directions that we know. . . . It is the place of dreams, of living dead men; it is *at the Back of the North Wind* and *Behind the Looking Glass.*

Having thus vividly defined the problem and provided a new Bible, the author tells us, on the last page, what we may expect to attain:

> Our space is but a limitation of infinite room to move about: *"In my Father's house are many mansions."* Our time is but a limitation of infinite duration: *"Before Abraham was, I am."* Our sense of space is the consciousness that we abide in Him; our sense of time is the consciousness that He abides in us. . . . The narrow concept of three-dimensional space is a bed in which the human mind has lain so long as to become at last inanimate. The divine voice calls to us again to demonstrate that we are alive. *Thinking in terms of the higher,* we issue from the tomb of materialism into the sunlight of that sane and life-giving idealism which is Christ's.

The reviewer, not having this illuminated conception of that profound book, "Behind the Looking Glass," was unable to find any connection between the first and last pages of "Four Dimensional Vistas."

The need for Prof. Joseph Wickham Roe's "English and American Tool Builders" (Yale University Press; $3 net), is apparent, now that our attention is called to the fact that achievement in this field has been less chronicled than in almost any other. We use innumerable tools constantly, and are quite ignorant of the genius who invented them; yet we must agree with Carlyle's estimate of man that: "Without Tools he is nothing, with Tools he is all." It is probably too late to discover who invented our common hand tools, but we have a record of the making of our modern machine tools. Professor Roe wisely begins his book at the period of the last part of the eighteenth century, when modern power industrialism began. The subject is treated from a biographical standpoint, and the lives and work of the great inventers and mechanicians are given in a readable and clear style. Numerous illustrations and portraits are an additional feature; and the book, as a whole, is interesting and valuable.

CHEMISTRY.

"Organic Agricultural Chemistry: A Textbook of General Agricultural Chemistry or Bio-Chemistry for Use in Colleges" (Macmillan; $1.60), by Prof. Joseph S. Chamberlain, of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, is a small book of 305 pages, divided into three parts: Systematic; Physiological; and Crops, Foods, and Feeding. It is intended for students of practical agriculture who have had only a first course in general chemistry, and in connection with a companion volume on Inorganic Agricultural Chemistry which is in preparation by the author's colleague, Dr. Anderson, is desgined to provide "enough general scientific instruction in chemistry to enable them to understand and correlate the broad problems of agricultural practice." The first section, of 132 pages, is an elementary introduction to organic chemistry with especial emphasis on such compounds as are of chief interest in agriculture. The second section, of nearly the same length, is a brief "study of the chemical reactions involved in the fundamental processes of living organisms, in the utilization of food by animals, and in photosynthesis in plants." The final section, of 45 pages, discusses the distribution of food constituents in agricultural crops, and the principles of animal food and feeding. A number of directions for laboratory experiments are included in the text. The plan of the book is a good one, and it is well executed. The volume will be welcomed as a useful addition to

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the existing texts for agricultural students. The lecture style in which it is written makes it easy reading, but has led to some repetition which is unnecessary and should have been avoided. The most conspicuous instance is found on pages 33 and 139 on the subject of enzymes and fermentation. There are a few statements which need correction, and one or two places where the exposition should be clarified. Thus, on page 8, methane is described as burning with a yellow flame which deposits carbon on cold surfaces, and it is implied that a mixture of methane and air explodes only when the air has twice the volume of the methane, and that this is the mixture which causes explosions in mines; and the paragraph on the polariscope, page 70, needs revision.

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